THE MANAGERIAL GRID: AN ANALYSIS OF THE SIGNIFICANCE THAT THIS ORIENTATION HOLDS FOR MANAGEMENT AND ORGANIZATION DEVELOPMENT

by

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By

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Subject and Approach

Problem setting

During the last two decades great strides have been made in the formulation, development, and implementation of tools aimed at the objective of enabling organizations to function more effectively. Today's organizations are equipped with sophisticated computerized systems for rapid communication and decision-making, production and marketing systems that have been developed to a high degree of efficiency, servo-like managerial control systems designed to monitor organization activity and to perform almost automatic corrective action, and energetic professional staffs and consultants continuously striving to find new ways to improve the productivity of the organization. In the midst of these advancements stands the glaring inability of organizations to implement fully the concepts of the behavioral scientists, the result being that maximum production potential is seldom approached. Human relations authorities such as Douglas McGregor in his Integration Principle have long advanced the theory that organizations can never hope to realize the full power that they possess

until such conditions have been created that the members of the organization can achieve their own goals best by directing their efforts toward the success of the organization.[1]

The central problems, then, which the Managerial Grid attempts to solve are: (1) the lack of acceptance or understanding by many managers that all persons, even those at the lowest wage levels, have the capacity to become psychologically involved in their work activities in a cooperative way and can become self-motivated and self-controlled within the organizational setting;[2] (2) once a manager accepts this philosophy, those methods he can successfully apply in bringing about the necessary change in his organization.

Development of the Managerial Grid

The Managerial Grid is a relatively new approach to management and organization development. Dr. Robert R. Blake and Dr. Jane S. Mouton introduced the Grid in the early 1960's, and since that time a great amount of interest and enthusiasm has been generated relative to its use in improving organizations. With vast possibilities and a

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[1]Douglas McGregor, The Human Side of Enterprise (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1960), p. 49.

[2]Robert Blake et al., "A Second Breakthrough in Organization Development," California Management Review, XI, No. 2 (Winter, 1968), 73.

need for introducing organization development training methods to more industrial and governmental organizations, Blake and Mouton founded Scientific Methods, Incorporated. Currently, forty-five of the top 100 industrial corporations in the United States are clients of Scientific Methods, Incorporated and are working to improve management and organizational practices through Managerial Grid methods.[1] There is actually no aspect of the Grid that is based on new findings; rather, it is reflective of the many years of experience in psychology of its authors and the collective findings and concepts of behavioral scientists.

Perhaps the key word in describing the importance of the Grid is implementation. It appears that in the area of implementation the Grid significantly departs from all other methods that attempt to incorporate behavioral science findings into the activities of organizations. Other methods such as T- (for training) groups and university management training programs often achieve important results in improving the philosophy of individual managers, but at the same time they fail to provide effective means to utilize what has been learned. The developers of the Managerial Grid attempt to change this by offering a step-by-step program that is aimed at bringing about change in an entire organization.

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[1] "Grid Puts Executives on the Griddle," Business Week, October 18, 1969, p. 158.

What is the Managerial Grid?

The Managerial Grid is actually an orientation on which to base a management philosophy. It incorporates the dilemma most commonly faced by managers, namely, trying to balance decisions and actions between "a concern for people" and "a concern for production." The Grid portrays five distinct styles of management that can result from these concerns for production and people. The Appendix to this chapter presents the Managerial Grid and describes the five basic managerial styles plus eight modified or mixed styles that can be found to exist. The Appendix also includes the "Managerial Grid in Three Dimensions," which conveys the idea that a manager has a backup managerial style and will use it depending on the strength or "thickness" of his predominant style and the pressures of the situation.

Purposes of the Managerial Grid

The Managerial Grid is a basis for organization development. The full Managerial Grid program consists of basically two endeavors. The first is designed to bring about change in an organization's management, and the second endeavor sets out to extend this change throughout all levels and facets of organizational activity. The total Managerial Grid program strives to provide: (1) a self-evaluation of each manager's style; (2) a detailed and repeated evaluation of team effectiveness; and (3) diagnosis

of major organizational problem areas. This thesis will explore the methods used in striving to accomplish the above, and attempt to determine the significance that these methods hold for management and organization development.

Research Questions

In trying to determine the significance that Managerial Grid methods hold for management and organization development, the central research question will be: To what degree do Managerial Grid and organization development techniques, as developed by Dr. Robert R. Blake and Dr. Jane S. Mouton, succeed in providing organizations with effective methods for the application of behavioral science concepts? In order to delve more deeply into the significance of the Managerial Grid and to obtain information about the universality of Managerial Grid concepts, the following subsidiary questions are posed:

1. How successful are Managerial Grid training materials and programs in accomplishing change in the individual manager to provide him with an improved managerial philosophy based on the behavioral sciences?

2. How successful is Grid Organization development training in improving the attitudes of employees in the lower levels of an organization, and in gaining their increased commitment to work toward the attainment of organization objectives?

3. Can Managerial Grid methods be applied successfully in military organizations, such as that of the United States Navy?

Research Methods To Be Used

It is felt that the most meaningful conclusions could be derived through use of a properly conducted questionnaire survey; however, that method will not be used because of time limitations and the extensiveness to which it would be necessary to conduct the survey. Also, if a questionnaire survey were used, the breadth of the research questions would have to be significantly reduced, and it is felt that this would negate much of the value for the author. Consequently, the primary source of information will be professional magazines and reports. Books will be used primarily as a basis for evaluating Managerial Grid theories as opposed to a direct evaluation of the success of its methods. Whenever possible, the research will be supplemented by letters soliciting opinions. Conclusions will be drawn, subjectively based on the research information that is obtained. This is due to a combination of the nature of the research methods to be used, the nature of the subject and research questions posed, and the fact that the Managerial Grid is relatively new and not yet very amenable to the determination of objectively based findings.

Scope and Organization of the Study

As is evident from the research questions, this thesis will cover a relatively broad area. This was intended because of the interest of the author, and also because of

the lack of sufficient information in any one area. It is felt that by approaching the Managerial Grid in totality, that is, by studying all of the major endeavors of its proponent, Scientific Methods, Incorporated, a more meaningful judgment can be made of its value.

The first area to be explored will be the leadership philosophy upon which the Managerial Grid is based. This is a controversial area and it has an important bearing on the answers to the research questions, since the leadership philosophy is an integral part of not only the initial management training activities, but the entire Grid Organization Development program as well. Once the Managerial Grid leadership philosophy has been evaluated, Grid procedures will be studied with the objective of determining the degree to which managers are changed to accepting this leadership philosophy. The next area of study will be the work group and the organization--in general the full Grid Organization Development program.

The last area to be studied will be the application of the Managerial Grid to the United States Navy. The intent will be to determine if unique problem areas exist in utilizing Managerial Grid methods in this less conventional organizational setting.

APPENDIX TO CHAPTER I

THE MANAGERIAL GRID STYLES OF MANAGEMENT

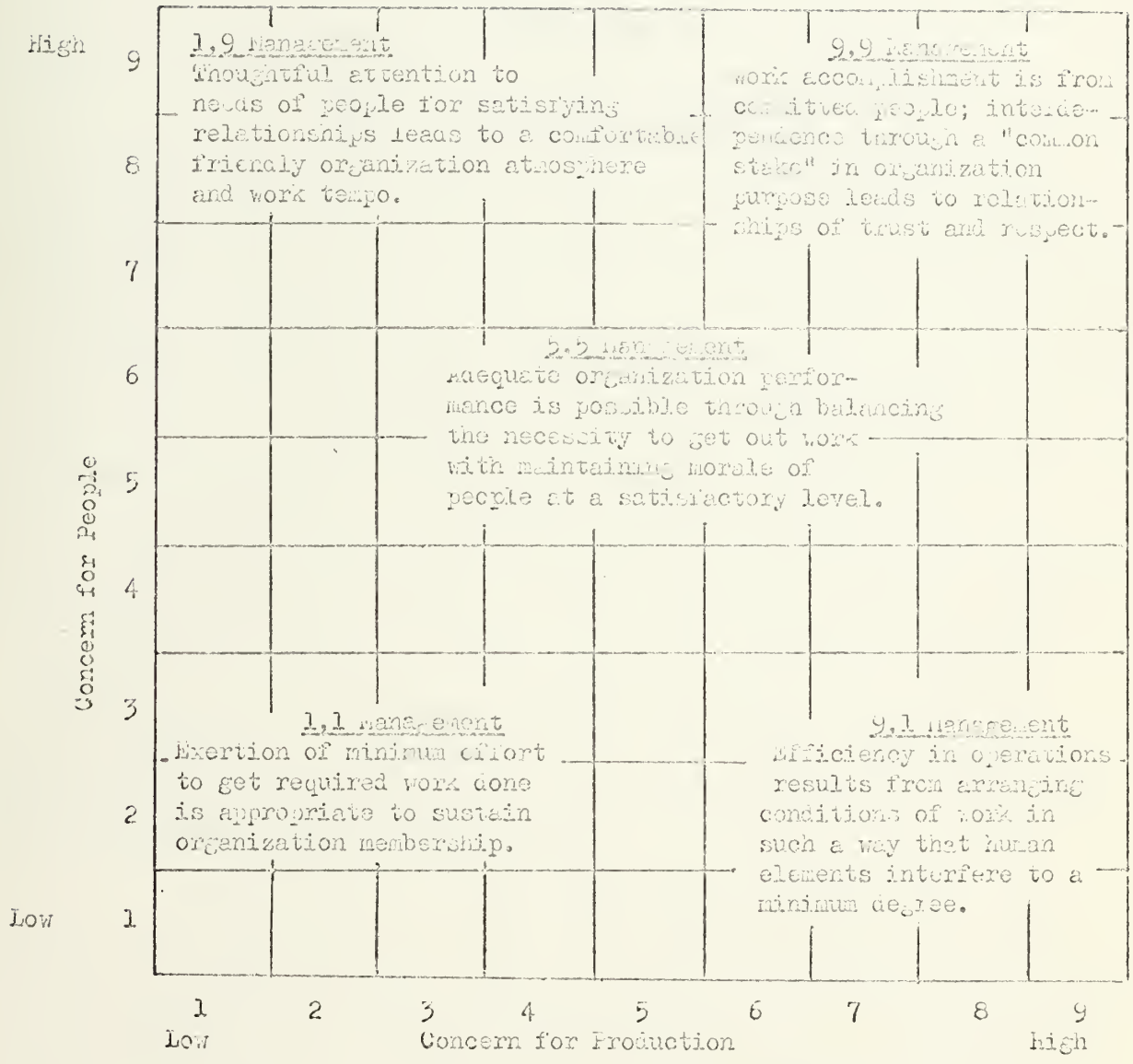
High
Low
Concern for People
9
8
7
6
5
4
3
2
1
1,9 Management
Thoughtful attention to needs of people for satisfying relationships leads to a comfortable friendly organization atmosphere and work tempo.
9,9 Management
Work accomplishment is from committed people; interdependence through a "common stake" in organization purpose leads to relationships of trust and respect.
5,5 Management
Adequate organization performance is possible through balancing the necessity to get out work with maintaining morale of people at a satisfactory level.
1,1 Management
Exertion of minimum effort to get required work done is appropriate to sustain organization membership.
9,1 Management
Efficiency in operations results from arranging conditions of work in such a way that human elements interfere to a minimum degree.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
Low
Concern for Production
high

Fig. 1.--The Managerial Grid

Source: Robert R. Blake and Jane S. Mouton, The Managerial Grid (Houston, Texas: Gulf Publishing Co., 1964), p. 10.

BASIC MANAGERIAL GRID STYLES

OF MANAGEMENT

The 9,1 Managerial Style

At the lower right-hand corner of the Managerial Grid is the 9,1 style of management. Under 9,1 management, people are regarded as instruments of production. There is a strong emphasis on task and job requirements to the extent that people are molded to fit the job, and are more or less disregarded except as they demonstrate themselves to be tools of production. The use of hierarchical power, in the authority-obedience sense, is the basis of control. One-to-one boss-subordinate relationships are the key linkages within the system. Human relations and interactions are subordinated except as required for the flow of orders and information through the system.

Subordinates are for the purpose of carrying out plans assigned to them, which they are expected to do with unquestioning obedience. There is very little concern for the development of subordinates or for communicating with them beyond issuing instructions.

When conflict erupts between subordinates, the 9,1 style is to suppress it because of the upsetting effect that it can have on the work process. If the conflict is between peers, or with one's boss, the intent is to win. The 9,1

managerial style can be characterized by the saying, "Nice guys finish last."

There are some serious long-term consequences of the 9,1 style of management. The most evident one is unionization. Of course, 9,1 style management is not the sole cause of unionization, but win-lose struggles between unions and management frequently center on aspects of 9,1 management that are resented and resisted by union workers. Another consequence is that 9,1 management often fails to utilize the gradually increasing skills and knowledge of people in the organization. The long-run consequence of human performance potential not being fully utilized is that there will be a shift by all persons in the organization to a 1,1 orientation.[1]

The 1,9 Managerial Style

In the upper left-hand corner of the Managerial Grid is the 1,9 style of management. This style is the polar extreme of the 9,1 style and is characterized by concern for a happy and harmonious work force, even though the objectives of the organization may suffer. A 1,9 manager will keep the work tempo at a comfortable pace, and at best will encourage people rather than drive them. An underlying attitude is that production requirements are contrary to the needs of people. Consequently, the most effective approach is believed to be one that keeps everyone happy,

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[1]Robert R. Blake and Jane S. Mouton, The Managerial Grid (Houston, Texas: Gulf Publishing Co., 1964), pp. 25-26.

the expected result being that people will work better under these conditions. Group harmony and congeniality are stressed by promoting social contact through frequent coffee breaks, arrangement of the work setting, picnics and recreational activities, and so on. The 1,9 manager is concerned with production but only to the extent that it does not pressure people.

The most serious long-run effect of the 1,9 approach is that production suffers. Not only is there a lack of emphasis on production, but meaningful and lasting human relations that are characteristic of a strong and productive organization are not possible under 1,9 management. The reason for this is that conflict and frustration are not confronted and properly dealt with, but are instead merely smoothed over or buried. The organization that results is one that lacks the innovativeness and strength to survive in a competitive environment. Consequently, the 1,9 managerial style creates a threat toward the long-term erosion of a free enterprise way of economic life.[1]

The 1,1 Managerial Style

At the lower left-hand corner of the Managerial Grid is the 1,1 style of management. A 1,1 manager has a minimum concern for both production and people; therefore, he does not manage at all. As in 9,1 or 1,9, incompatibility is assumed to exist between production requirements

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[1] Ibid., pp. 57-80.

and needs of people. However, since concern for both is low, the manager with 1,1 orientation experiences little or no dilemma between production and people. He simply withdraws. In this respect it is unnatural, and generally comes to those who have accepted defeat. A 1,1 manager is generally no more than a message carrier, communicating orders from the layer above to the layer below. He is adept at passing blame for failures along in such a way as to absolve himself from responsibilities, yet he rarely initiates criticism. If he does initiate criticism, it is generally in the interest of self-defense. The 1,1 manager wants to be a part of the organization, but not seen. He strives for minimum contact and involvement.

An organization that operates on the basis of a 1,1 concept could hardly survive. The danger is that many individuals and organization segments may perform in a 1,1 manner and may survive for long periods of time. An organization that allows such conditions to exist wastes potential productive contribution.[1]

The 5,5 Managerial Style

At the middle of the Grid, the 5,5 managerial style represents a moderate concern for people, coupled with a moderate concern for production. As in 9,1, 1,9, and 1,1, the 5,5 manager feels that "concern for production" and "concern for people" cannot be one and the same; that is, there

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[1] Ibid., pp. 85-105.

are trade-offs between the two. Accordingly, the 5,5 manager seeks to compromise between the two, with the result that neither "concern for people" nor "concern for production" is optimal. This approach emphasizes formal administrative and traditional practices, and uses them as a means of directing subordinates. By such an approach, management can minimize having to give orders and an uncomfortable direct confrontation with subordinates. The carrot-and-stick approach becomes a key to supervision, in which the 9,1 substance of work direction is mellowed by a realistic consideration that friction among people can be costly to production. The 5,5 manager is not, then, truly concerned for people, but he is concerned primarily about the effects that their behavior can have on production. Because of this concern, he uses rewards and just enough "concern for people" to keep the organization operating according to the formal procedures. Organizations that are managed in this manner are likely to be viewed as bureaucratic since rules and regulations appear to be an end in themselves.

Although the 5,5 management style may provide effective mechanical guidance, it does not promote innovation and creativity because of the great emphasis on tradition and formal procedures. Thus, over the long term, 5,5 management can cause a gradual slipping behind as more movable, progressive organizations take advantage of new opportunities for better management practices. Unfortunately, the general American approach to management today is the 5,5 style,

because of an inability to gear organizations to any greater accomplishment or commitment than that represented by 5,5.[1]

The 9,9 Managerial Style

At the upper right-hand corner of the Managerial Grid is the 9,9 management style. As can be seen, this style of management integrates a high concern for both people and production. Thus there is an assumption that the needs of people and the needs of the organization are not inherently in conflict, and that people want to be productive and involved in their work. Based on this assumption, the organization and team effort become the focal point of 9,9 management action. Under the 9,9 style, the individual is seen to have a stake in the success of the organization, and the individual is linked to organizational effort through team effort. The individual is thus committed to promoting teamwork.

The long-run consequences of the 9,9 managerial style are yet to be objectively determined because of the relative newness of the Managerial Grid. Conclusions drawn to date indicate that the following improvements can be expected:

1. Increased profitability.
2. Improved intergroup relations, such as between management and labor unions, and company headquarters and its decentralized divisions.
3. Increased awareness of, and strengthening of, team action.

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[1] Ibid., pp. 110-136.

4. Reduction of interpersonal frictions and increasing the degree of understanding among individuals whose work requires close coordination of effort.

5. Increased individual effort and creativity, and an increased personal commitment to work.[1]

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[1] Ibid., pp. 142-180.

MODIFIED GRID STYLES OF MANAGEMENT

In addition to the five basic Grid theories--9,1, 1,9, 1,1, 5,5, and 9,9--behavior can be characterized by eight other recognizable combinations. These additional Grid theories are better regarded as a mixture of two or more of the five basic styles.

One is 9,5, the benevolent autocrat style, in which a strong concern for production is altered by the need to control. A 9,5 manager would ask subordinates for their ideas and suggestions, but then would tell them what his decision is. While such a decision may be correct from an operational point of view, it will probably result in people saying what they think will be acceptable as opposed to what they think is right.

At the 5,9 position is the consultative approach. This style of manager promotes participation to the point of allowing it to have an adverse effect on production. He is very concerned about getting full support for a decision before moving ahead, but at the same time he is hesitant to confront areas of disagreement which are preventing support from developing.[1]

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[1]Robert R. Blake and Jane S. Mouton, Corporate Excellence Through Grid Organization Development: A Systems Approach (Houston, Texas: Gulf Publishing Co., 1968), pp. 25-26.

Paternalism is characteristic of a manager that approaches control of work in a 9,1 style while at the same time exhibiting concern for people in a 1,9 way. His basic belief is that work itself is unrewarding drudgery, and if workers are to be happy then they must receive compensation in the form of generous gifts. The result is often an underlying antagonism toward the 9,1 control and dependency on the 1,9 practices and attitudes. The long-run effect of such an environment can be aggression and hate for a paternalistic management, and open revolt.

The wide-arc pendulum approach alternates between the 9,1 and the 1,9 styles of management over extended periods of time. For example, due to low profits a company might decide to "tighten up" and push for increased output in a 9,1 manner. Then, when profits were restored, the company would dramatically shift to a 1,9 posture in order to restore confidence that management is concerned for people. After a period of 1,9 management, the company would probably have to shift back to the 9,1 style in order to regain the profits that were lost during the 1,9 period.

Counterbalancing is when management is characterized by a 9,1 stule, but a staff organization is employed in a 1,9 manner, in order to provide a counterbalancing effect. An example of this sort of arrangement

is when a personnel representative or employee relations coordinator keeps in close touch with production centers to find out about any adverse feelings before they can grow to disastrous proportions. Counterbalancing may be successful in keeping a problem under control, but it fails to offer a basic solution. It is an approach that deals with the relief of symptoms rather than digging into and eliminating the underlying causes.

The two-hat approach exhibits a strong concern for both people and production, but, unlike 9,9, the two concerns are viewed separately. The two-hat approach differs from counterbalancing in that the responsibility for maintaining both concerns rests in the same person. It differs from paternalism in that both concerns are not practiced at the same time, and it differs from the wide-arc pendulum approach in that there is not a pure break between the two concerns over long periods of time. A management characterized by the two-hat approach might, for example, hold a meeting to discuss proposals to increase efficiency and in the same week hold another meeting to discuss employee morale, without ever recognizing that there is a direct relationship between the two topics.

The statistical 5,5 manager uses all five of the basic styles in his daily supervision. He selects the style that is most acceptable at the time, with no regard for whether the style is appropriate or not. Though he

behaves inconsistently, he sees no contradiction in his actions, because his basic rationale is that each person is different and therefore each should be treated with a different approach.

The 9,1 to 1,1 cycle is created by a management approach that generally leads to a 1,1 orientation by those falling under this style of management, namely 9,1. The 9,1 style of management often results in resentment and resistance from those in the organization. Generally, such resistance is difficult to maintain for any length of time, and those resisting then move in the direction of a 1,1 orientation. The attendant low production, waste, and inefficiency will probably result in more 9,1 type pressures from management, which tend to enforce the move toward 1,1. The resultant move toward 1,1 brings on even more 9,1 pressure. Management perpetuates the cycle in its futile efforts to enforce obedience.[1]

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[1]Blake and Mouton, The Managerial Grid, pp. 212-22.

THE MANAGERIAL GRID IN THREE DIMENSIONS

The third dimension of the Managerial Grid represents the thickness of a given style (see Figure 2). This means the degree to which a manager resists changing any given style when under pressure. Each style is found to some degree in every manager. For most managers one style is his most dominant approach, a different style his back-up approach, still another his tertiary approach, and so on down to the style least characteristic of him. Thus, a 9,9 manager faced with a situation involving pressure and conflict may strive to seek a solution consistent with his 9,9 philosophy, but after several failures to arrive at a solution may shift to another managerial style or approach. Under such circumstances the style of the 9,9 manager may be considered to be only moderately thick, or 9,9,5.[1]

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[1] Robert R. Blake and Jane S. Mouton, "The Managerial Grid in Three Dimensions," Training and Development Journal, January, 1967, pp. 2-5.

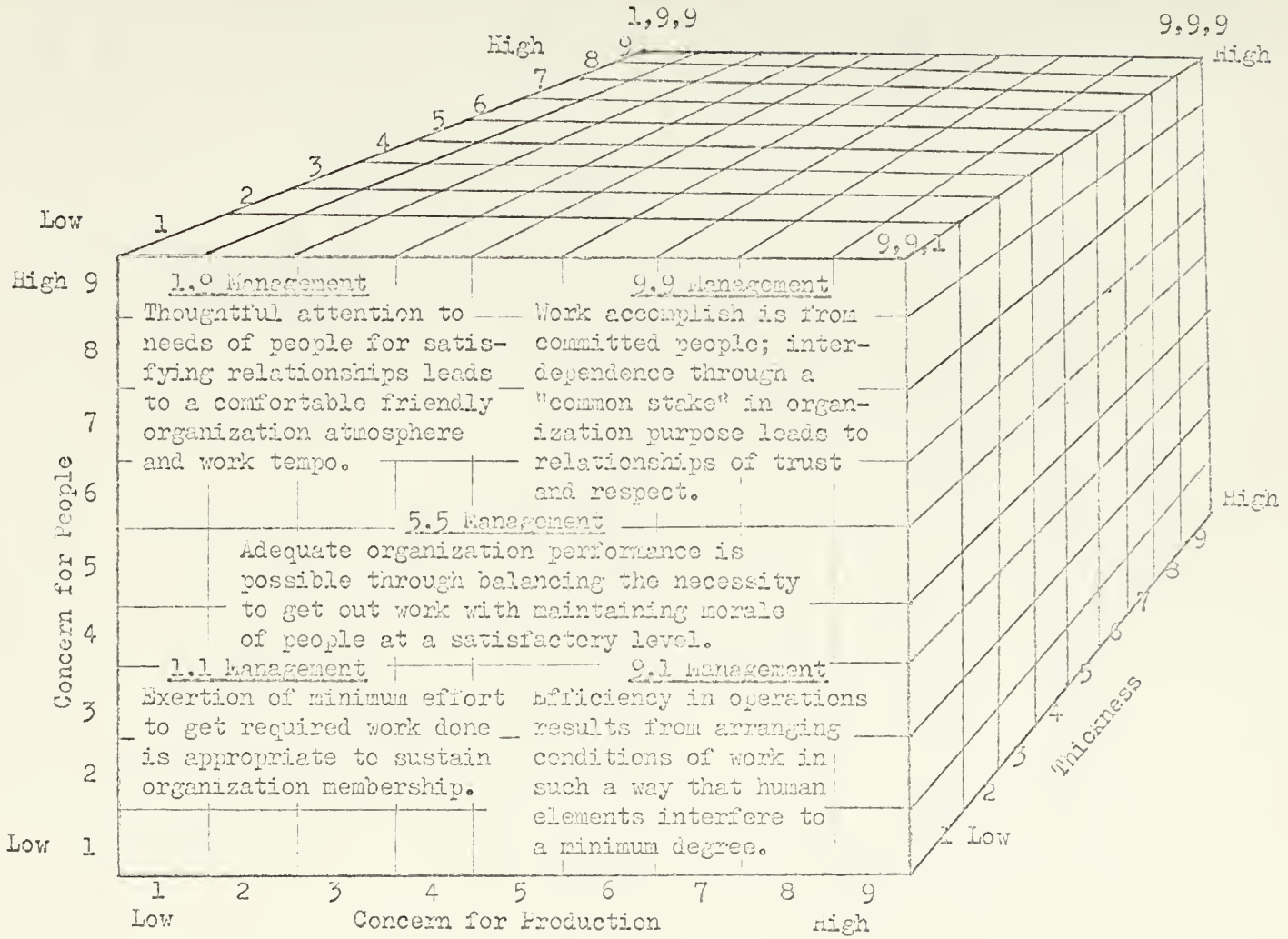
1,9,9
9,9,9
High
Low
1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
9,9,1
1.9 Management
Thoughtful attention to needs of people for satisfying relationships leads to a comfortable friendly organization atmosphere and work tempo.
9.9 Management
Work accomplish is from committed people; interdependence through a "common stake" in organization purpose leads to relationships of trust and respect.
5.5 Management
Adequate organization performance is possible through balancing the necessity to get out work with maintaining morale of people at a satisfactory level.
1.1 Management
Exertion of minimum effort to get required work done is appropriate to sustain organization membership.
9.1 Management
Efficiency in operations results from arranging conditions of work in such a way that human elements interfere to a minimum degree.
Concern for People
Concern for Production
Thoroughness
Low
High

Fig. 2. --The Three-Dimensional Grid

Source: Robert R. Blake and Jane S. Mouton, "The Managerial Grid in Three Dimensions," Training and Development Journal, January, 1967, p. 3.

CHAPTER II

LEADERSHIP AND THE MANAGERIAL GRID

The leadership basis of the Managerial Grid is a fundamental consideration for evaluation. This chapter will review several leadership theories and a critical comparison will be made between these theories and that of the Managerial Grid.

The Managerial Grid Style of Leadership

Blake and Mouton do not discuss leadership *per se* in any of their major works on the Managerial Grid, nor do they differentiate between leadership and management. They use the term "management" much more frequently than the term "leadership," but when leadership is used it is used in a sense synonymous with management. However, throughout their writings it is clear that they are advocating a "best" style of leadership and it is based on the 9,9 dimension of the Managerial Grid. There are three important aspects of the Managerial Grid as a leadership philosophy.

The first aspect is based on the theory that the goals of the individual and that of the organization do not present a dichotomy. Application of this theory requires that leaders strive to convey to everyone in the

organization the overall organizational objectives, and especially in terms of how they relate to each individual. Once this has been accomplished, the stage is set for participatory problem solving, since each individual has a clear understanding of his stake in the success of the organization.

The second important aspect of the Managerial Grid as an approach to leadership is that it clearly advocates application of the 9,9 style. No reservation is made for situations in which one of the other Grid styles would be preferable to 9,9.[1]

The third is that leadership must be team oriented. Individual development is important only to the extent that team work is facilitated. Through team development it is felt that individuals can better identify with and become committed to organizational goals. Phase II of Grid Organization Development centers on team effectiveness and the contributing roles that individuals play in team success. In Phase III, the concept of team work is extended to the resolution of intergroup conflicts, i.e., the organization becomes the team and teamwork is required of all members (each individual team).[2]

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[1]Blake and Mouton, The Managerial Grid. chap. vii.

[2]Ibid., chap. xii.

Other Leadership Theories

In an attempt to analyze the Managerial Grid approach to leadership, several other leadership theories will be presented in this section as a basis for critical comparison.

Continuum of Leadership

This theory was developed by Robert Tannenbaum and Warren H. Schmidt, and was based on the concept that no single leadership style is appropriate for every leadership situation. Tannenbaum and Schmidt felt that leadership practices could be described as being either "boss-centered" or "subordinate-centered," or some degree in between these two extremes. They depicted this relationship on "A Continuum of Leadership Behavior" (see Figure 3) in which a particular form of leadership behavior is composed of varying degrees of "boss-centered leadership" and "subordinate-centered leadership."

As to what type of leadership behavior a manager would choose in any given situation, it would depend on his assessment of three variables: (1) forces in the manager, (2) forces in the subordinates, and (3) forces in the situation. The successful leader then becomes one that can correctly evaluate the forces at work in any given leadership situation, can select the most appropriate leadership style, and can effectively carry out this style.

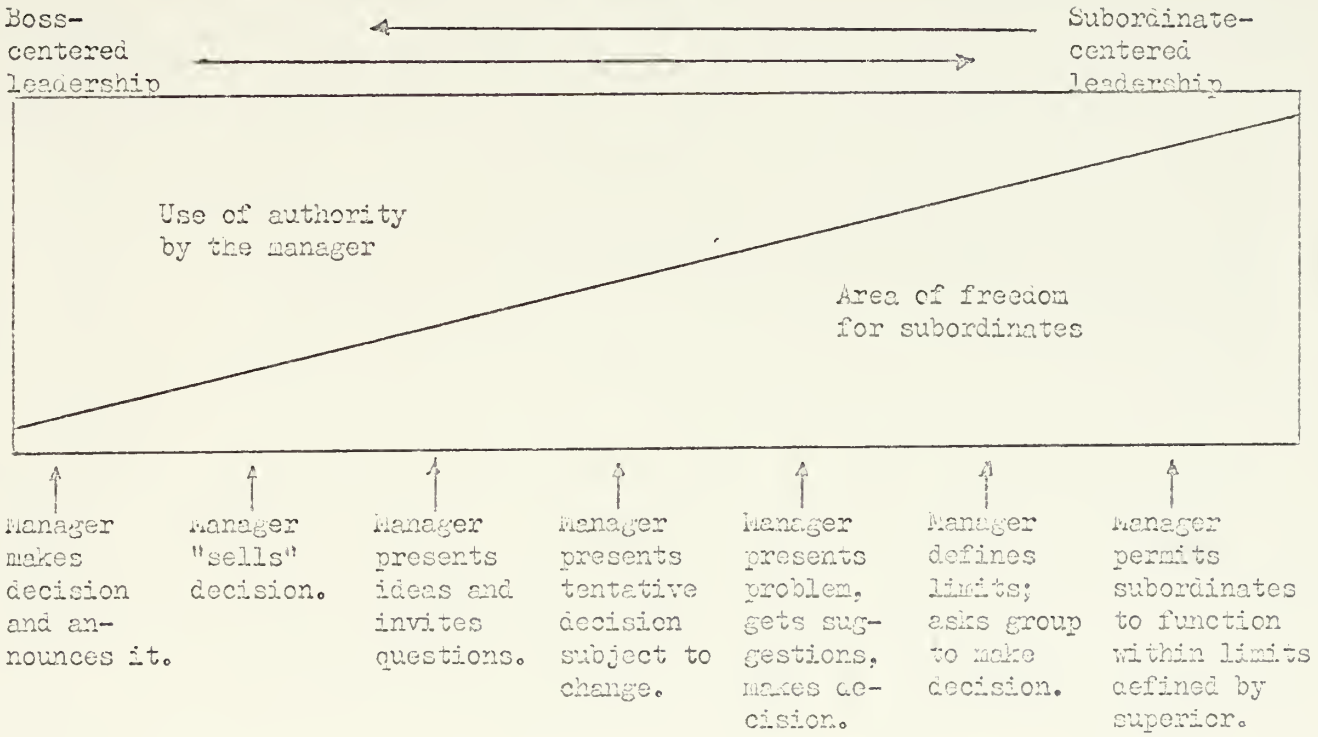
Boss-centered leadership
Subordinate-centered leadership
Use of authority by the manager
Area of freedom for subordinates
Manager makes decision and announces it.
Manager "sells" decision.
Manager presents ideas and invites questions.
Manager presents tentative decision subject to change.
Manager presents problem, gets suggestions, makes decision.
Manager defines limits; asks group to make decision.
Manager permits subordinates to function within limits defined by superior.

Fig. 3 --Continuum of Leadership Behavior

Source: Robert Tannenbaum and Warren H. Schmidt, "How to Choose A Leadership Pattern", Harvard Business Review, Mar.-Apr. 1957, p. 96.

The Continuum of Leadership Theory does not address the question of what leadership style would yield the best results, assuming that the three determining forces were consistent with this preferred style. However, the authors do not leave the impression that each style, though determined by the three forces, will all yield the same results. What they do say is that research has shown that the leadership style should be oriented toward the "subordinate-centered" end of the continuum. Based on this, Tannanbaum and Schmidt make an important qualification to their theory: Though the restrictive effects of the relevant forces limit the selection and cultivation of a preferred leadership style for day-to-day leadership situations, in the long term a best style can be selected. Once subordinates develop trust and confidence in a manager based on the long-term leadership style that he practices, he will be much more successful in practicing different leadership styles based on his day-to-day assessment of the determining forces.[1]

Ohio State Leadership Studies

From 1945 to 1956, the Bureau of Business Research at Ohio State University conducted studies to try to determine the nature of leadership behavior. The results of the studies tended to refute the idea that leadership

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[1]Robert Tannenbaum and Warren H. Schmidt, "How to Choose a Leadership Pattern," Harvard Business Review, March-April, 1957, pp. 95-101.

behavior is based on an either-or relationship between task and relationships, and can be depicted along a single continuum.[1]

The studies gave a new title to the leadership determinates "task" and "relationships," by calling them "initiating structure" and "consideration," respectively. Leadership behavior was then classified into four quadrants based on the two dimensions, "initiating structure" and "consideration." The four categories became: "high structure," "high consideration," "low structure and consideration," and "high structure and consideration." These relationships are graphically presented in Figure 4. It is obvious from a comparison of Figure 4 and the Managerial Grid in Figure 1 (page 9) that a strong resemblance exists between these two leadership behavior orientation theories.[2]

The Ohio State Studies found, in interviewing aircraft commanders, that better leadership effectiveness was provided by men exhibiting high ratings for both "relationships" and "initiating structure."[3] In studying school

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[1]"Task" refers to "a concern for production" as in the Managerial Grid and "boss-centered" as in the Continuum of Leadership Behavior. "Relationships" refers to "a concern for people" as in the Managerial Grid and "subordinate-centered" as in the Continuum of Leadership Behavior.

[2]Paul Hersey and Kenneth H. Blanchard, "Life Cycle Theory of Leadership," Training and Development Journal, XXIII, No. 5 (May, 1969), 26.

[3]Ralph M. Stogdill and Alvin E. Coons, Leader Behavior: Its Description and Measurement, Research Monograph No. 88 (Columbus: Bureau of Business Research, The Ohio State University, 1957), p. 64.

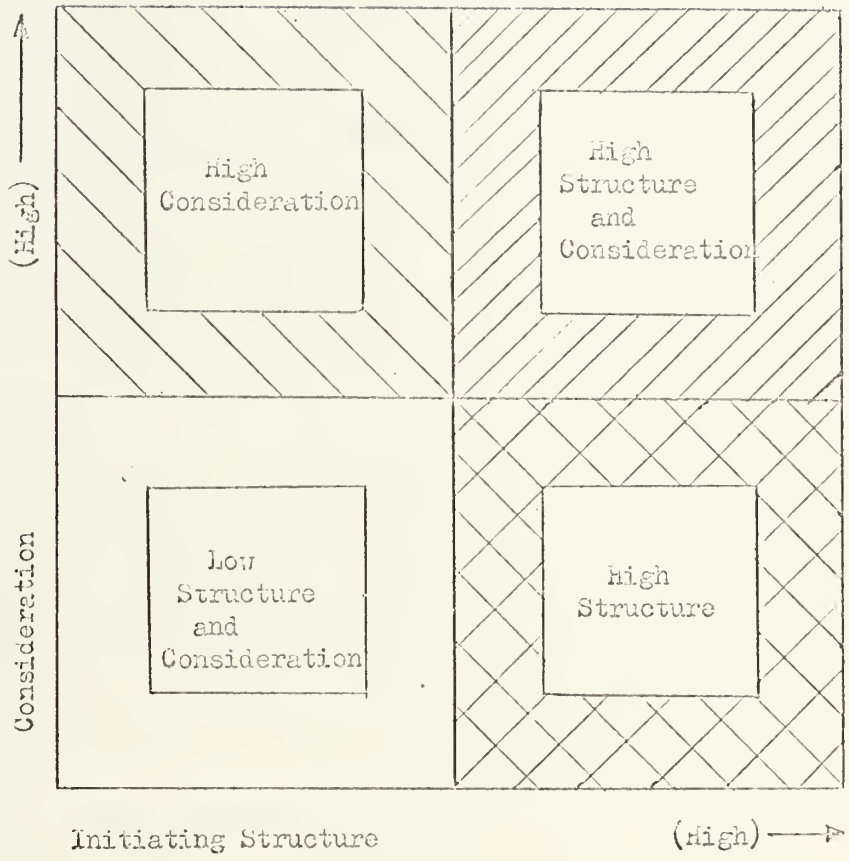

Fig. 4.--The Ohio State Leadership Quadrants

Source: Paul Hersey and Kenneth H. Blanchard, "Life Cycle of Leadership", Training and Development Journal, May 1969, p. 26.

superintendents, the Ohio State staff arrived at the same conclusion, and also that men scoring low on "relationships" and "initiating structure" were found to be ineffective or undesirable as leaders. The studies did not extrapolate that the findings indicated a "best style" of leadership for all situations; however, Hersey and Blanchard's review of the Ohio State Studies concluded that a "best style" of leadership was being suggested.[1] The foregoing adds credence to Blake and Mouton's contention that 9,9 leadership is best.

The 3-D Theory

The 3-D Theory, developed by W. J. Reddin, accepts the concept that task and relationships are the two fundamental factors determining leadership behavior, and recognizes four basic or latent leadership styles that result. This portion of the 3-D Theory is basically the same as that of the theories of the Managerial Grid and the Ohio State Leadership Studies, but this is the only similarity. The 3-D Theory does not recognize any one of the four latent styles as being preferable for all leadership situations. It follows, then, that each of the four latent styles could be either more or less effective, depending on the circumstances. Thus, the four latent styles are expanded into eight additional leadership styles. Figure 5 illustrates these twelve styles.[2]

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[1] Hersey and Blanchard, "Life Cycle Theory," p. 27.

[2] W. J. Reddin, "The 3-D Management Style Theory," Training and Development Journal, April, 1967, pp. 13-15.

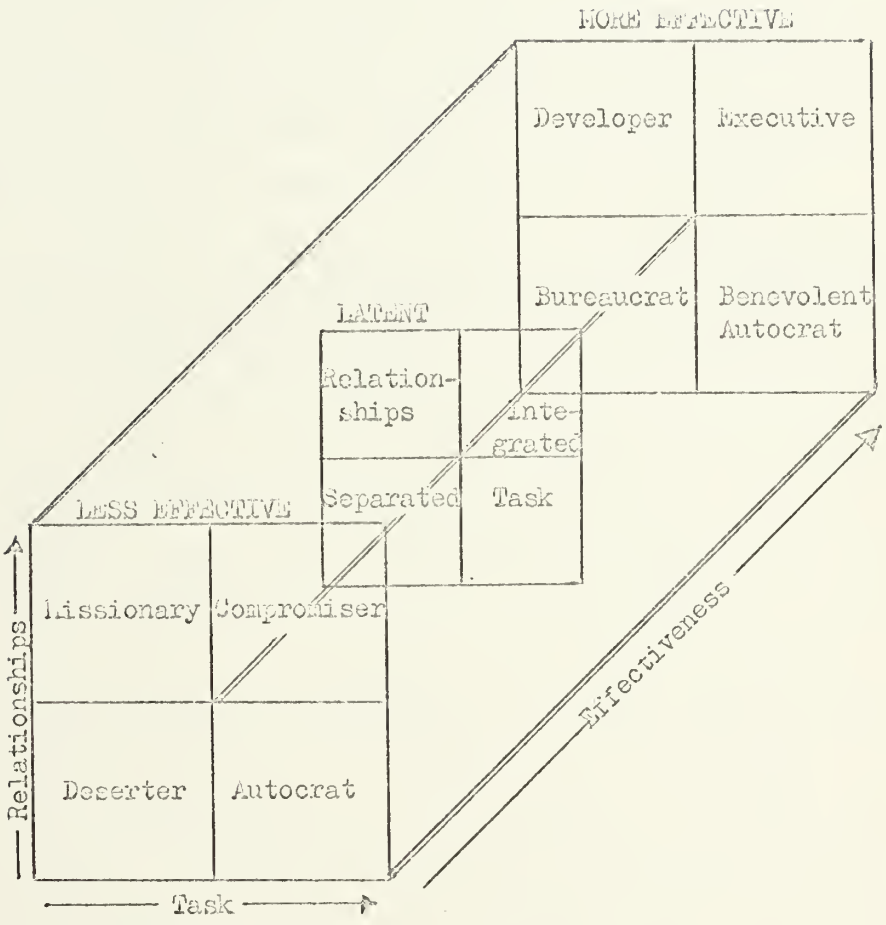

Fig. 5.--3-D Theory

Source: W. J. Reddin, "The 3-D Management Style Theory", Training and Development Journal, April 1967, p. 14.

Hersey and Blanchard added support to the 3-D Theory by proposing that an effectiveness dimension be added to the Ohio State Leadership model. This model would then represent an integration of leadership style and the demands of the particular situation. As in the 3-D Theory, this proposal is based on the theory that there is no best style of leadership. They summarize their contention as follows:

> . . . an effective leader must be able to diagnose the demands of the environment and then either adapt his leader style to fit these demands, or develop the means to change some or all of the other variables.[1]

It is interesting to note Blake and Mouton's reaction to the concept of an effectiveness dimension. In an article in 1967 in which their own three-dimensional model[2] was presented, they responded to an article by Reddin by saying:

> A dimension of effectiveness has been suggested elsewhere as the third dimension. However, this creates inherent difficulties of analysis. For example, thinking of a person who manages in a 1,1 way, it is difficult to comprehend in what manner he might be thought to be effective. It is also a contradiction to the basic thinking originally expounded in the Managerial Grid to think of a 9,9 set of assumptions which are ineffective. Whereas the thickness concept has a demonstrated utility as a third dimension, the effectiveness dimension is relatively ineffective.[3]

The above rejoinder does not really confront the basic issue; namely, is there a best style of leadership? Though

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[1]Hersey and Blanchard, "Life Cycle Theory," p. 28.

[2]For explanation of Blake and Mouton's Three-Dimensional Grid, see supra. p. 21 and Fig. 2, supra., p. 22.

[3]Blake and Mouton, "The Managerial Grid in Three Dimensions," p. 5.

Reddin presents only sound reasoning that there is no one best style of leadership,[1] Hersey and Blanchard offer convincing examples of situations in which a 9,9 style would be inappropriate and situations in which a 1,1 style would be preferable.[2] Thus, these articles make Blake and Mouton's remarks in the above quotation appear weak.

Life Cycle Theory

The Life Cycle Theory of Leadership, developed by Hersey and Blanchard, is also based on the concept that leadership styles change depending on the particular environment. In this case the environment variable is "maturity" and the theory is based on a curvilinear relationship between task and relationships and "maturity." Maturity is defined as the degree of relative independence, ability to take responsibility, and degree of motivation to achieve, and has no relation to chronological age. Life Cycle Theorists contend that a leader has to use less and less (in varying degrees) task and relationships type of behavior as the level of maturity of his followers continues to increase. According to the theory, leader behavior should move from (1) high-task-low-relationships behavior to (2) high-task-high-relationships and (3) high-relationships-low-task behavior to (4) low-task-low relationships behavior,

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[1]Reddin, "3-D Management Style Theory," pp. 13-15.

[2]Hersey and Blanchard, "Life Cycle Theory," p. 28.

as the followers progress from immaturity to maturity.[1] This notion is illustrated in Figure 6.

Levels of Human Behavior Theory

This theory has much in common with the Life Cycle Theory, and it draws heavily on Maslow's Hierarchy of Human Needs Theory for some of its basis. It, too, does not subscribe to the concept of a "best style" of leadership. However, it goes one step further than most theories in this category by suggesting that leadership styles and people should not be changed, but instead the organizational environment.

According to Levels of Human Behavior Theory, people progress through seven basic levels of development (see Figure 7), and in each level they respond favorably to a different leadership style. Most people, it is believed, will remain in one behavioral level for life. This means that it is very feasible for an organization to change the organizational environment for individuals, to be more consistent with their behavioral level. Such change can be brought about, for example, by personnel transfer, reorganization of work, and changing bosses. This approach enables an organization to improve its leadership effectiveness, while at the same time not attempting to change people. Because a person (whether the boss or a subordinate)

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[1] Ibid., pp. 29-30.

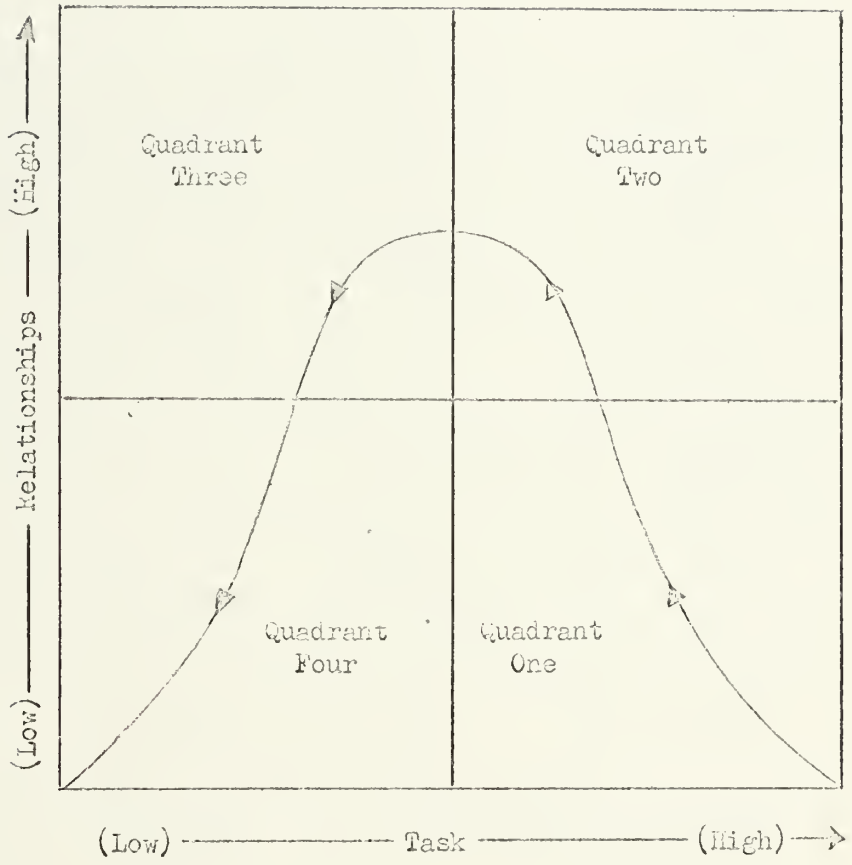

Fig. 6 —Life Cycle Theory of Leadership

Source: Paul Hersey and Kenneth H. Blanchard, "Life Cycle Theory of Leadership", Training and Development Journal, May 1969, p. 29.

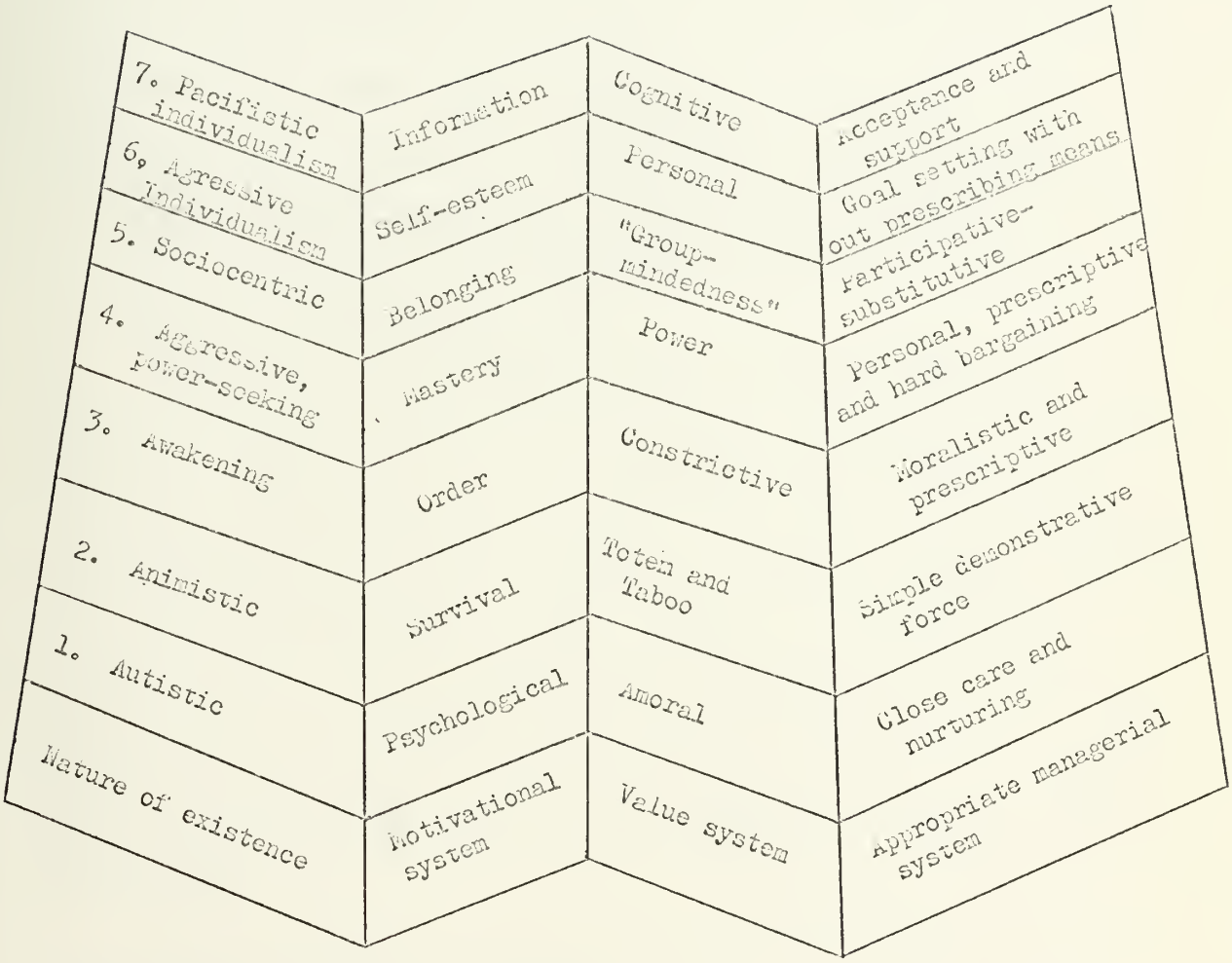

Fig. 7.—Levels of Human Behavior

Source: Clare W. Graves, "Deterioration of Work Standards", Harvard Business Review, Sept.- Oct. 1966, p. 120.

appreciates being left to be what he is, he will show his appreciation by good work standards.[1]

The developer of the Levels of Human Behavior Theory criticizes other theories that offer less complex approaches to effective leadership and particularly those that offer a "best style" approach. To quote Graves:

> There is a solution to the problem of poor work standards, but it is not the answer so often proposed--changing people, be they the managed or the managing. It is not necessarily Theory X or Theory Y, a certain Managerial Grid style, or a new personnel department.[2]

The Levels of Human Behavior Theory offers an important consideration for improvement of leadership effectiveness. At the same time, the point of view proposed is so narrow that it is difficult to imagine a manager adopting it fully. The theory is also subject to substantial criticism in its interpretation of Maslow's Hierarchy of Human Needs. Nevertheless, the theory serves to point out an important dimension which the Managerial Grid does not encompass.

Leadership studies of Fiedler

Fred E. Fiedler and colleagues conducted a fifteen-year study on leadership behavior and concluded strongly that there was no one "best style" of leadership. As an alternative to not finding a "best style," Fiedler developed

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[1]C. W. Graves, "Deterioration of Work Standards," Harvard Business Review, XLIV, No. 5 (1966), 117-28.

[2]Ibid., p. 117.

what he termed the Contingency Model of Leadership Effectiveness. Basically, this model rested on the theory that different leadership environments may demand different leadership styles. This meant, then, that group performance was dependent on leadership style and the degree to which the situation provided the leader with the opportunity to use his style.

In support of this theory, Fiedler provided results from his LPC and ASO measures,[1] in which it was found that task-oriented leaders perform best in situations that are highly favorable for them or in situations that are relatively unfavorable. On the other hand, relationship-oriented leaders tend to perform best in situations in which they have only moderate influence, either because of the fact that the task is relatively unstructured or because they are not too well accepted even though their leadership position carries with it a high degree of power and task structure.[2]

Fiedler's theory of leadership effectiveness incorporates the views of those who would vary the

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[1]LPC and ASO measures refers to a method that Fiedler used to determine leadership style. This determination is based on interpretation of scores indicating leader esteem for the Least-Preferred Co-worker (LPC) and leader perception of the similarities between the most- and least-preferred co-workers he had ever had, i.e., Assumed Similarity Between Opposites (ASO).

[2]Fred E. Fiedler, A Theory of Leadership Effectiveness (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1967), p. 147.

leadership style to fit the environment and of those who would vary the environment to fit the leadership style. He advocates considering both when seeking improved leadership effectiveness. Fiedler's views on leadership effectiveness are summed up quite succinctly in the following quotation:

> If we want to improve organizational performance we must deal not only with the leader's style but also with the factors in the situation which provide him with influence. While one can never say that something is impossible, and while someone may well discover the all-purpose leadership style or behavior at some future time, our own data and those which come out of sound research by other investigators do not promise such miraculous cures.[1]

Leadership studies of Likert

The findings of Likert, based on several years of study by the Institute for Social Research, University of Michigan, offer still another consideration in the search for an explanation of the causes of effective leadership. He found that supervisors that were considered to have productive work groups were employee-centered (high relationships) and the less successful supervisors were found to be more job-centered (high task). Rather than arrive at conclusions based on these findings, Likert raised the question as to whether the employee-centered leadership resulted in greater production or did a naturally productive group cause their supervisor to become employee-centered. Likert pointed out that a naturally high-producing

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[1] Ibid., p. 247.

section may enable their supervisor to revert to general, employee-centered leadership, which would give him more time for other activities. Conversely, a low-producing group may force its supervisor to practice job-centered leadership.[1]

It does not appear that Likert's qualifying question as to which is the causal factor in his research findings negates his implication that employee-centered leadership behavior is best. It seems, rather, that he is simply pointing out a reality of human nature and one that should be taken into consideration prior to total acceptance of such research findings. There is a parallel between Likert's question and Blake and Mouton's Three-Dimensional Grid. For example, a 9,9,1 leader may continue to practice 9,9 style leadership as long as his followers allow him to practice this style with ease. However, as soon as he is confronted with a nonproductive group, 9,1 style leadership characteristics may become dominant.[2] It would be difficult to argue against this, that our environment has a strong influence on the type of behavior that we portray. This is not to say that there is or is not a best style of leadership, but it serves only to point out a complicating

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[1]Rensis Likert, New Patterns of Management (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1961), p. 12.

[2]Blake and Mouton, "Managerial Grid in Three Dimensions," p. 4.

and important factor for both research and leadership training.

Self-actualization and leadership

Most of the leadership theories already discussed in this chapter are not clearly based on theories explaining human behavior. It seems that since successful leadership relies on successful motivation of behavior, a meaningful leadership theory would have to show a clear relationship to a theory on human behavior. The problem may be that many leadership theorists do not understand human behavior, but still the effort must be made to develop a leadership theory. This they seek to accomplish, generally through statistical means. The inherent limitation in such an approach is that the results are based on past and present activity, which may or may not reveal a better approach for the future.

Abraham Maslow, through development of his Hierarchy of Needs theory,[1] has contributed a great deal toward the

[1]Maslow postulates five classes of human needs in order of their prepotence: (1) physiological; (2) safety; (3) belongingness and love; (4) esteem; and (5) self-actualization. Prepotency as used by Maslow means that if a number of a person's needs are unsatisfied at any given time, satisfaction of the most prepotent ones will be more important than the others. This means that as a lower level, more prepotent need becomes satisfied, the succeeding higher level need becomes the dominant goal for satisfaction. A. H. Maslow, Motivation and Personality (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1954), chap. v.

understanding of human behavior and motivation. From the insight into the causes of human behavior that Maslow has provided, there have developed leadership theories centered around individuals' achievement of higher level needs; namely, esteem and self-actualization, with the greatest emphasis on self-actualization. Important contributors in this field have been McGregor, Argyris, and Herzberg.[1] There are differences in their theories, but all three are based on a single underlying concept, so well expressed by Douglas McGregor:

> . . . the creation of conditions such that the members of the organization can achieve their own goals best by directing their efforts toward the success of the enterprise.[2]

By goals, McGregor is referring to need satisfaction as expressed by Maslow. Such a theory explains the futility of trying to motivate people through total reliance on external, "carrot-and-stick" type approaches, such as monetary inducement, increased fringe benefits, new and elaborate work surroundings, or acts of overt friendliness or coercion. This is not to say that such external measures are not important, but only to a certain extent. Herzberg makes this point quite clear when he points out that the

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[1]Douglas McGregor, The Human Side of Enterprise (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1960); Chris Argyris, Integrating the Individual and the Organization (New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1964), F. Herzberg, B. Mausner, and B. Snyderman, The Motivation to Work (New York: Wiley, 1959).

[2]McGregor, Human Side of Enterprise, p. 49.

absence of desirable external factors, which he terms hygienic factors, can bring about dissatisfaction in a job, but their presence, no matter in what degree, cannot bring about complete self-satisfaction. On the other hand, motivating factors such as achievement, recognition, work itself, responsibility, and advancement have the potential to bring about complete satisfaction.[1] The simplest distinction that can be made between these two categories is that the former is based on physical, external fulfillment of a need, whereas the latter results in fulfillment of an internal nature, self-actualization.

Blake and Mouton's 9,9 approach to leadership is very similar to the self-actualization theories of this section. Comparing the description for 9,9 style management--"Work is from committed people; interdependence through a 'common stake' in organization purpose,"[2]--with McGregor's contention that "the members of the organization can achieve their own goals best by directing their efforts toward the success of the enterprise,"[3] it is reasonable to conclude that Blake and Mouton also draw heavily on Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs as a theoretical basis. If this conclusion is true, then the Managerial Grid apparently

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[1] Herzberg, Mausner, and Snyderman, Motivation to Work.

[2] Blake and Mouton, The Managerial Grid, p. 10.

[3] McGregor, Human Side of Enterprise, p. 49.

presents a significant inconsistency. It would seem that to be a 9,9 style leader, and having a high concern for both people and production, sometimes requires behavior that is characteristic of the descriptions given for some of the Grid styles other than 9,9. For instance, a person who has a strong need for love and belongingness may not be very effective in his work because of the frustration brought about by this unsatisfied need. Under such circumstances, a 1,9 approach might help to satisfy this need and make the person a better worker. Another person might have all of his needs fully satisfied and be best self-actualized by being given a high degree of independence on the job. In this case, a 1,1 approach would probably bring the best results. For a person whose self-actualization goals were inconsistent with those of the organization, a temporary move to a 9,1 approach to create a safety need (e.g., fear of losing one's job) might be successful in causing the individual to change to the desired self-actualization goals, out of his effort to satisfy his need for safety (job security).[1]

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[1]Coercion is not being advocated except as a very temporary stimulus. It might be necessary to use it in the case of an individual who had been denied in the past the opportunity for self-actualization as part of his job, e.g., an assembly-line worker. As a result, the worker may have gotten into the habit of satisfying his self-actualization need by thinking up schemes to sabotage his productive work effort. Should an enlightened management redesign the individual's job to provide him with an opportunity for self-actualization, a coercive stimulant might be required at first to "jolt" him from his old work habits.

Thus, in some cases, a manager who truly has a high concern for both people and production may most appropriately utilize leadership styles other than 9,9. It may be that in terms of the Managerial Grid, the most effective leader is the statistical 5,5.[1] He would not, however, be as Blake and Mouton have described him: he selects the style that is most acceptable at the time, with no regard for whether the style is appropriate or not.[2] Instead, he would select the most appropriate style based on the level of need satisfaction of his followers, consistent with the requirements of the organization.

Reconciling the Differences: Is There a Best Style of Leadership?

Trying to reconcile and draw meaningful comparisons from the leadership theories just presented proved to be a difficult and frustrating task. Attempts to find concise areas for comparison have been less than successful, so conclusions reached in this section will be little more than supposition.

Management versus leadership

In reading about leadership, significant disparities seem to exist between the theories of those who advocate a best style and those who advocate a more situational approach. It was a temptation to arrive at

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[1] See discussion of mixed grid theories, supra, pp. 17-20.

[2] Blake and Mouton, The Managerial Grid, p. 221.

conclusions based on these absolute differences. However, on closer examination, it appears that much of the disagreement may result from a lack of definition. The theorists advocating a best style of leadership seem to convey a more long-term philosophy as opposed to short-term situational approaches. It was interesting to observe the amount of debate carried on between the two schools of thought, with the "situational approach" advocates the more adamant of the two.

Tannenbaum and Schmidt offered a strong argument for a "situational approach," but they were also the only authors reviewed that made a constructive effort to "bridge the gap" between the "best style" and "situational" approaches. Their solution is best presented in their own words:

> As the manager works with his organization on the problems that come up day by day, his choice of a leadership pattern is usually limited. He must take account of the forces just described and, within the restrictions they impose on him, do the best that he can. But as he looks ahead months or even years, he can shift his thinking from tactics to large-scale strategy. No longer need he be fettered by all of the forces mentioned, for he can view many of them as viarables over which he has some control. He can, for example, gain new insights or skills for himself, supply training for individual subordinates, and provide participative experiences for his employee group.[1]

The distinction that Tannenbaum and Schmidt are making may be no more than an indication of the need to clarify the

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[1]Tannenbaum and Schmidt, "How to Choose a Leadership Pattern," p. 101.

meaning of the terms "leadership" and "management."

Koontz and O'Donnell offered just such a clarification of the terms "leadership" and "management." Their comments provide important insights for reconciling the various leadership theories:

> Managers should be leaders, but leaders need not be managers. In numerous studies during the past decade, it was assumed that leadership was merely a synonym for managership. While this is true, it is apparent that the part of the manager's job which involves getting things done through people is undoubtedly made easier when the manager is a skillful leader. Although managers typically have the power to hire, fire, promote, and otherwise affect the ability of subordinates to realize personal goals, for maximum results men need to be voluntarily led, not driven. But the manager who creates and maintains an environment conducive to the effective and efficient performance of those individuals for whom he is responsible will be doing much to assure his leadership position.[1]

The writings of Rensis Likert also provide insight into the differences between leadership and management. Likert postulated four basic styles of management systems and termed them: "exploitive authoritative," "benevolent authoritative," "consultative," and "participative group." Under each category he listed the probable patterns of leadership, organizational characteristics, and behavior that exists under each management system.[2]

Thus there is a difference between leadership and management, but it is not sharp and distinct. There is a

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[1]Harold Koontz and Cyril O'Donnell, Principles of Management (4th ed.; New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1968), p. 612.

[2]Likert, New Patterns of Management, chap. 14.

"gray" area, for the two are strongly interrelated. It is the contention of the author, however, that those proponents of a "best style" of leadership are more correctly proposing a philosophy for management, and "situational" advocates are talking about leadership strategies.

Why do Blake and Mouton advocate 9,9?

The Managerial Grid offers a very simple, easy to understand, and highly acceptable way of viewing different characteristics of management. From it can easily be seen the most desirable orientation for a manager to follow. Should the Grid recognize a need for variances in managerial behavior based on different environmental circumstances or the level of need satisfaction of followers, then a great deal of complexity would be introduced. It is doubtful that a model such as the Managerial Grid and its training methods could be developed that could incorporate all of the necessary variables in a meaningful and effective way. It seems obvious, then, that Blake and Mouton do not make a distinction between leadership and management; nor do they recognize that a manager must consider changing his leadership style depending on the circumstances, for to do so would severely weaken the theoretical underpinnings of the Grid.

By advocating 9,9 management and the attendant high concern for both people and production, it seems inevitable that a philosophy based on Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs must be followed. A person who has a high concern for people

could find no better way to practice this concern than through efforts to satisfy human needs. If he also has a high concern for production, then he has no alternative but to seek to integrate the needs of the organization with the needs of its members. It must be concluded, then, that Blake and Mouton, by advocating 9,9 management are really subscribing to the same basic philosophy as McGregor, Herzberg, and Argyris.[1] As pointed out in the previous section on self-actualization and leadership, the inconsistency in the Grid is that it is saying "no" to leadership styles that may be necessary in pursuing a long-term management philosophy based on a high concern for both people and production. The question that remains unanswered is: How significant is this inconsistency?

The question just posed cannot be definitively answered within the limitations of this research. It is obvious, though, that a "trade-off" situation exists between the advantages of teaching a very desirable managerial philosophy and the disadvantage of creating a dilemma-producing approach to everyday leadership situations.

The Teamwork Aspect of 9,9 Management

The emphasis on team development is perhaps the most important facet of 9,9 management. If the contention is correct that 9,9 management requires the integration of

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[1] McGregor, Human Side of Enterprise; Herzberg, Mausner, and Snyderman, The Motivation to Work; Argyris, Integrating the Individual and the Organization.

individuals' needs and organization goals, as in McGregor's Integration Principle,[1] it would not be difficult to argue that the team is the best vehicle to use in accomplishing this difficult task. The team provides all of the necessary elements for satisfaction of individual needs. It is also a natural intermediary through which organizational goals can be related to the individual. One author who was evaluating the Grid pointed out that team training had been recognized for years as a very important concept, but one which no one had done much about. He rated the Managerial Grid concept of team development as being excellent.[2]

Summary

Most of the literature on the Managerial Grid discusses Grid concepts in terms of management practices. There is no clear reference to the application of Grid concepts to leadership, as if a distinction needs to be made between management and leadership. In seeking to evaluate the Managerial Grid as a basis for leadership behavior, one approach is to compare Grid concepts with various theories on leadership behavior. In making this comparison, two schools of thought clearly evolve. One school consists of of those that advocate a "best style" of leadership for all situations, and the other school prefers a "situational

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[1] McGregor, Human Side of Enterprise, p. 49.

[2] W. J. Reddin, "The Blake Approach and the Grid--A Critique," Training Directors Journal, December, 1963, p. 35.

approach" which would require either changing the leadership style or some of the environmental factors, or a combination of both. The Managerial Grid falls in the former category. Both schools of thought criticize the other's philosophy, with each offering valid arguments. In seeking to reconcile the two approaches, it seems that the best answer lies in an assumption that the two schools are really not diametrically opposed to one other, but that each is actually concerned with a different aspect of management. The "best style" school is advocating a long-range management philosophy. Of course, this management philosophy would have a direct bearing on the methods used in dealing with various leadership situations; but this is not to suggest that a manager should not appropriately change his leadership style depending on the circumstances. The "situational approach" school is advocating theories to guide a manager in dealing with various leadership situations.

The Managerial Grid offers an excellent basis for development of a long-range management philosophy, particularly in the emphasis that it places on teamwork development. However, it appears that there is a weakness in the Grid in that it does not encompass many of the beneficial leadership approaches as advocated by the "situational approach" school.

CHAPTER III

CHANGING ATTITUDES AND BEHAVIOR THROUGH GRID TRAINING

In Chapter II an attempt was made to discover and present the basic strengths and weaknesses of the Managerial Grid as a philosophy for management. Assuming that an organization weighs these factors and decides that the 9,9 style of managing offers the best approach for achieving organizational objectives, then the next assessment that should be made is the ability of Grid training methods to bring about the necessary changes in attitudes and behavior. The first two phases of the six-phase Grid Organizational Development (OD) program are designed to accomplish this task. These two phases will be described and evaluated in this chapter. In Chapter IV, the last four phases of Grid OD will be covered.

The full six-phase program covers individual introduction to Grid concepts, teamwork building, intergroup conflict resolution, organizational goal-setting, goal attainment, and stabilization of organizational effort. Accomplishment of all six phases will probably require from three to five years, depending on the size of the organization. Total organization involvement and change is the

aim of Grid OD; however, some organizations choose to pursue only the first two phases, or possibly just Phase I. These two phases deal primarily with management development, whereas the last four phases are oriented more toward development of the entire organization.[1]

Phase I: The Grid Seminar

Attendance

Organizations normally become introduced to the Grid Seminar by sending a few members of their top management team to an off-site public seminar held by Scientific Methods, Incorporated. Depending on the amount of enthusiasm that develops for this type of training and the particular needs of the company, many more members of management may be sent to these off-site seminars. Generally, though, once an organization becomes committed to sending a large number of people through Phase I training, the training shifts to in-house seminars. It is normal for the in-house seminars to be conducted by line management.[2] The rationale for line management's conducting the seminars, as opposed to a member of the training staff or someone from Scientific Methods, Incorporated, is that acceptance will probably be improved if line management demonstrates its commitment in this

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[1] Robert R. Blake et al., "Breakthrough in Organization Development," Harvard Business Review, November-December, 1964, p. 137.

[2] Joan McAllister, "The Pursuit of Excellence," Sales Management, March 18, 1966, p. 90.

manner. This type of participation also strengthens line management's commitment.[1]

In selecting managers to send to the off-site seminars, the major consideration is selecting men that represent all of the major organizational areas. In this way, initial exposure and enthusiasm for Grid training is evenly seeded in the top organizational hierarchy. However, once the switch is made to in-house seminars, attendance selection is normally based on a technique referred to as the "diagonal slice." This means that people are selected from each functional area and from several organizational levels. The objective is to avoid boss-subordinate relationships in a seminar, or at least on the same study team that is formed as part of the seminar. The end result of the attendance selection process for the Grid Seminar is a replica of the organization.[2]

The level to which seminar attendance is extended is a function of several considerations. The needs of the organization, funds available for training, and normal turnover rates at various hierarchical levels are examples of the factors that should be considered. Normally, the earlier seminars will be reserved to the higher managerial levels, but as the program progresses, attendance will be

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[1]Blake and Mouton, Corporate Excellence Through Grid Organization Development, p. 294.

[2]Ibid., p. 303.

extended to include the lower supervisory levels. Some organizations have all levels down through first-line supervisors participate in the training. Some go even further and include wage-level personnel.[1]

Conduct of the Grid Seminar

The work of the Grid Seminar actually begins with about forty hours of advance preparation by each participant. This advance preparation normally includes reading The Managerial Grid and answering a sixty-question multiple choice test on the book. Other exercises to be completed include diagnoses of managerial values, managerial theories, and the organization's culture in terms of the Grid. The completed exercises are for the man's own use and benefit during the seminar.[2]

The seminar itself consists of five days, totaling fifty hours, of intensive problem-solving. Study teams are formed, consisting of from five to nine members, and are composed of a "diagonal slice" of the organization. The organizational "diagonal slice" is applicable only to in-house seminars. The public seminars would have to resort to almost a random grouping. Participants remain in the same study teams for the duration of the Grid Seminar. The study teams perform various problem-solving and simulation

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[1]Blake et al., "A Second Breakthrough," p. 73.

[2]Blake and Mouton, Corporate Excellence Through Grid Organization Development, p. 35.

exercises. Normally, these exercises are representative of real company problems, and each team constantly analyzes its effectiveness in dealing with these problems. Each individual receives feedback from the other team members as to his behavior and interaction with the team, particularly when this behavior is blocking team success. This feedback includes an evaluation from the team of each member's managerial style. Teams also openly evaluate and criticize action taken by other teams.[1]

After each team exercise, results are scored against an objective standard. Teams can see how they compared with both the standard and the other teams. The teams then spend several hours in critique sessions in discussing the errors that they made and the barriers that existed. They are then able to reinforce their strengths and try to eliminate their weaknesses on the next problem-solving exercise.[2]

The Grid Seminar is not designed to result in immediate organizational improvement. It is more a means by which individuals can achieve a greater realization of the effects that individual behavior can have on an organization. The objective is for participants to leave the week of Grid training with an awareness of their managerial

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[1]Harold M. F. Rush, Behavioral Science Concepts and Management Application, Research Report No. 216 (National Industrial Conference Board, Inc., 1969), p. 53.

[2]Blake and Mouton, Corporate Excellence Through Grid Organization Development, p. 39.

behavior, an ability to recognize particular Grid styles in others, and an acceptance and appreciation of the 9,9 way of managing.[1] A representative from Scientific Methods, Incorporated, commented that he did not believe the Grid Seminar accomplished actual change in individuals in a direct manner. Instead, the Grid Seminar showed individual managers how they could obtain better information and make better decisions in a 9,9 managed organization culture. He felt that after exposure to such a culture over an extended period of time, actual changes in behavior and values could result.[2]

The individual returning to his organizational environment after a Grid Seminar is seldom able to apply successfully what he has learned. Normally he meets with too much resistance from those who have not attended a Grid Seminar. Consequently, the desirable effects of the Grid training are not long-lasting, and the individual will probably lapse into his old habits. This is the fault with many management improvement programs, for they provide only an initial attitude change in individuals, but not an effective means for implementation of a change in actual performance. Grid OD attempts to change this situation, and, once an organization has committed itself to more than just

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[1] Ibid., pp. 44-66.

[2] Fred Petersen, "The Managerial Grid," An address presented at The George Washington University by a representative of Scientific Methods, Inc., March 18, 1970.

Phase I training, the chances appear good that the Grid OD approach will eliminate the foregoing problem of utilization of what has been learned.[1] The problem is well illustrated by B. F. White, Southwest regional director of the Internal Revenue Service, whose organization is extensively involved in Grid OD. In White's words: "The usual approach is to train a guy to be a good executive but not do anything about his organizational culture. You set up for him a real problem of re-entry."[2]

Relationship of Sensitivity Training to Grid Laboratory Training

Before proceeding to an evaluation of Phase I training, it is felt necessary to make a comparison between sensitivity training, or T-group training, and Grid laboratory training. Grid laboratory training refers to Phase I and the Grid Seminar; however, Phase II is so closely tied to Phase I that the information in this section is also relevant to Phase II. Analyses in the literature frequently make little or no distinction between sensitivity training and Grid laboratory training. Most of these articles criticize sensitivity training and include Grid training in the same category. In order to interpret such analyses better, the differences and similarities between Grid and sensitivity training should be understood.

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[1]Blake and Mouton, Corporate Excellence Through Grid Organization Development, pp. 92-119.

[2]McAllister, "Pursuit of Excellence," p. 88.

There are two main differences between sensitivity training and Grid laboratory training. First of all, Grid training is concerned with the behavior of the individual and his interaction with others, only to the extent that it relates to management. Sensitivity training would go beyond this and be concerned with those aspects of behavior and attitudes that may be very important to the individual, but which may have little relevancy to his job as a manager. The second difference is that Grid laboratory training, unlike sensitivity training, uses only work-related problems and situations.[1] Grid training is most related to sensitivity training in the face-to-face feedback experiences in the study teams.[2] An outgrowth of this face-to-face experience is that participants become attentive objective listeners and learn to ask more meaningful questions. People become undefensive both in their listening and in their talking, which is very similar to the results of sensitivity training.[3]

Is sensitivity training better for OD than Grid training?

There is much debate regarding which is the better approach for organization development--sensitivity training

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[1]Rush, Behavioral Science Concepts, p. 53.

[2]Blake et al., "Breakthrough in Organization Development," p. 137.

[3]McAllister, "Pursuit of Excellence," p. 88.

or team training such as the Grid Seminar. One article reviewed was especially informative in highlighting the considerations.[1] The authors presented the results of a study they had performed in 1965, in which they attempted to compare the value of sensitivity training to organization or team training. They pointed out that organization training is conducted in the organization training laboratory (OTL), which is essentially the same as the Grid Seminar. The study was performed on forty-one upper-level management officials of the State of California while they were attending a six-day organization training laboratory. These same managers had participated in sensitivity training the year before. The men were asked to fill out questionnaires to indicate the relative values of the sensitivity and OTL types of training. The findings as described by the authors were:

> Sensitivity training may be as valuable as organization training for the individual in his many interpersonal relationships both on and off the job. The organizational team training approach with its emphasis on work relationships may be more effective for the individual in his role as a leader and member of an organizational team back at the plant.[2]

They qualified their findings by pointing out that they were only tentative due to three main factors: (1) twelve months had passed since the men had attended sensitivity training;

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[1] John E. Wilson, Donald P. Mullen, and Robert B. Morton, "Sensitivity Training for Individual Growth--Team Training for Organization Development," Training and Development Journal, January, 1968, pp. 47-53.

[2] Ibid., p. 53.

(2) an individual's perception of his performance or how he is using the results of training may not coincide with the facts as perceived by his associates; and (3) Argyris has stated that enthusiasm for laboratory training continues for about six months, but then during the tenth month a fade-out begins to appear.[1]

TRW, Incorporated, has an OD program very much like that of Grid OD. One of the primary differences, however, is that they started their OD program using sensitivity training as opposed to laboratory training that is more job-oriented, such as the Grid Seminar. This would at first appear to be a point against the Grid form of laboratory training. However, TRW has found that the classic form of sensitivity training does not provide enough transfer between what is learned in the laboratory and the job environment. The company has therefore modified its sensitivity training to include job- or task-oriented development. The vice-president for industrial relations explained the reason for the change as follows:

> If people are in a lab and they learn to level with each other about their feelings, they have begun to do something useful. But if that's all they do, the experience has relatively minimal usefulness compared to what it could accomplish if people relate to each other within the organizational setting around task issues.[2]

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[1] Ibid.

[2] Rush, Behavioral Science Concepts, p. 163.

Steinberg's Limited also began its introduction to OD by utilization of sensitivity training for its managers. The company even had Chris Argyris conduct a modified encounter group session for some of its managers. Steinberg's, however, decided to adopt the Grid Seminar for its OD program as opposed to a sensitivity training laboratory. The reason for the change was that the company believed the Grid training to be more work-oriented and consequently more valuable to the company.[1]

Raymond Corporation selected Grid training over sensitivity training for the same reasons offered by many other companies--that Grid training deals more with production problems. However, Raymond offered another important reason. The company felt that total organization exposure to laboratory training would necessitate development of an in-house capability to conduct the laboratory sessions because of the expense of tuition and lost time connected with the public laboratory training. The company felt that it could develop its own managers into Grid trainers, but that there was little chance of developing any of them into sensitivity trainers.[2]

There were noted in the literature many similar examples of companies that felt that the more job-oriented laboratory, or Grid Seminar, was superior to the classic

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[1] Ibid., p. 128.

[2] Ibid., p. 117.

sensitivity type laboratory. Most companies were very strongly in favor of the aspects of sensitivity training that resulted in openness, candor, and face-to-face feedback; however, they preferred that these training experiences be adapted to problem-solving exercises that represented actual situations. Some companies, such as Syntex Corporation, practice sensitivity training in their OD program; however, they conduct what is called "family" laboratories as the first phase of their OD program. The "family" laboratories are attended by members of natural work groups. In the sessions that Syntex holds, participants spend part of their time at work on simulation exercises, the purpose of which is to develop teamwork.[1] Thus, what Syntex calls sensitivity training is very much like what would result from a combination of Grid OD Phases I and II. Without a doubt, there are variations of sensitivity training laboratories, ranging from completely unstructured T-groups to more structured, task-oriented sessions which increase in similarity to Grid training. Another variation of sensitivity training is following-up an initial laboratory experience with a "family" laboratory. This is very similar to Grid OD when Phase II, teamwork development, follows Phase I, the Grid Seminar. A program such as this would tend to overcome the disadvantages of not being job-related, because involvement of natural work groups would enable transfer of the learning experience to

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[1] Ibid., p. 132.

the job environment. Based on the fact that companies tend to perceive that the more job-oriented laboratory training experiences are more valuable in terms of results for the company, it will be concluded that the Grid Seminar is better for OD than classic sensitivity training is. This is not to say, however, that sensitivity training, modified to include simulation exercises or a program in which initial laboratory training is followed by "family" laboratories for teamwork development, is indeed less valuable for OD than the Grid Seminar. It could be that the former form of sensitivity training is just as good as or better than the Grid Seminar for OD.

What Is the Value of Phase I Training?

Negative findings

On the negative side, strong criticism was expressed by Fred E. Fiedler for such programs as the Grid Seminar. Fiedler's arguments for a "situational approach" to leadership were presented in Chapter II. These same arguments can be seen reflected in his indirect criticism of Grid Seminars. He prefaced his remarks on leadership training programs, such as Grid training, by indicating a strong bias against industrial psychologists. Toward this group he expressed the view that they typically regard executives' job environments as being fixed, whereas the executives' leadership and management practices are very flexible and subject to change

through training. On leadership training he said:

> A person's leadership style, as we have used the term, reflects the individual's basic motivational and need structure. At best it takes one, two, or three years of intensive psychotherapy to effect lasting changes in personality structure. It is difficult to see how we can change in more than a few cases an equally important set of core values in a few hours of lectures and role playing or even in the course of a more intensive training program of one or two weeks.[1]

As an alternative to trying to change behavior, Fiedler suggested that leadership training laboratories would be much more effective if they sought to introduce the individual to leadership situations in which he can perform well and point out those in which he is likely to fail.[2]

Fiedler's criticism appears to have some validity, but it should be qualified in application to the Grid. As stated by Blake and Mouton, the intent of Grid training is not to achieve immediate organization improvement: "It serves more as a trigger which creates a readiness to really work on human problems of production."[3] More than anything else the Grid Seminar is a learning experience, the objectives of which are: (1) learning the Grid; (2) increasing personal objectivity; (3) achieving clear and candid communication; (4) learning the value of teamwork; (5) using critique for personal, team, and organization

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[1]Fiedler, A Theory of Leadership Effectiveness, p. 248.

[2]Ibid., p. 254.

[3]Blake et al., "Breakthrough in Organization Development," p. 137.

learning; (6) applying the Grid framework to evaluating the corporate work culture; (7) developing a personal philosophy of corporate values; (8) learning to manage intergroup conflict; and (9) gaining perspective and orientation of the phases of Grid OD.[1] A person can learn these values during a Grid Seminar and not necessarily exhibit any noticeable change back on the job. Blake and Mouton recognize this problem, and as explained by them:

> When corporate members complete an educational experience, such as the Grid Seminar, their expectations for their own personal performance as well as for organization excellence are almost always uniformly high. They feel encouraged and optimistic that good things can happen. Resistance to change is low or absent. A man tries to apply his learning when he returns to work. When he meets the difficulties embedded in the corporate culture, his constructive expectations are violated. He then begins to wonder, "What's the use?" And the next step is to feel, "It won't work. To heck with it! I hope the company won't bother me with any more of this. Just leave me alone and I'll do my best." Resistance to trying to change increases.[2]

The value then is not in changing personality in the sense that Fiedler is referring, but in establishing a base of learning experiences for future development and change.

American Airlines is critical of some aspects of the Grid Seminar. The company has established its own one-week laboratory patterned after the Grid Seminar, but with major changes. Basically, the company avoids teaching that 9,9 leadership is best. In the words of the senior vice-president for operations:

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[1]Blake and Mouton, Corporate Excellence Through Grid Organization Development, pp. 34-66.

[2]Ibid., p. 116.

> The Grid tends to stereotype people, and often people spend too much time trying to identify with a spot on the Grid and not enough energy is spent on the change that's needed. . . . People are all different and they should complement each other with their natural abilities and acquired skills. We don't want a lot of "carbon copy" managers.[1]

Perhaps one point against the Grid Seminar is due to the fact that there are many successful companies that have selected sensitivity training over Grid training. The National Industrial Conference Board surveyed 241 companies and found that of those that reported that they use behavioral science concepts in their training programs, 85 reported that they use sensitivity training and 80 use Grid training.[2] It may be that for some companies that are pursuing only one phase of laboratory training as opposed to a full OD program, sensitivity training achieves better results. The impression received from various articles is that sensitivity training has a much more profound effect on the individual than does the Grid Seminar, even to the point of causing an occasional emotional breakdown by a participant.[3] If this is the case, more learning and consequently more benefit may be derived through sensitivity training for the company that chooses to pursue only one phase of training. However, as concluded in the last section, for the company involved in a full OD program the Grid

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[1]Rush, Behavioral Science Concepts, p. 82.

[2]Ibid., p. 44.

[3]Ibid., p. 46.

Seminar, or at least the modified task-oriented sensitivity training laboratory, seems better suited to achieve successful results as part of that program.

Positive findings

Aside from the learning that takes place in Grid Seminars, which provides a basis for future organization development, some organizations report an immediate payback from Phase I training. Since the application of knowledge gained in a Grid Seminar is really a function of the organizational environment to which the participant returns, it is reasonable to expect that some organizational environments are much more amenable to acceptance of Grid learnings than are others.

Larry E. Greiner found, in performing a study on Grid OD in the United States Forest Service, that managers participating in Phase I perceived themselves as changing their behavior. This fact was confirmed by their subordinates.[1] Corning Glass Works performed a study to determine the results of their Phase I training, and found that several beneficial changes had occurred. The most significant changes had occurred in managerial behavior relative to groups and participation. Managers' perception of their own responsibility and authority was found to be increased. There was

[1]Larry E. Greiner, "Grid--OD Evaluation: Evaluating a Pilot Program Using Managerial Grid for Organization Development in the U.S. Forest Service" (unpublished report on U.S. Forest Service, December, 1966), pp. 18-20B.

an evident increase in concern for both production and people. Intergroup relations also improved.[1] Leroy G. Malouf conducted a study in 1963 on a group of managers that had participated in a Grid Seminar. His findings showed that the participants had become more effective managers. As a result of the training, they were conducting better meetings and were better meeting participants; they made better decisions through participative practices; they listened better, and their work-oriented relationships were found to be improved. Malouf also found that the managers were experiencing some difficulty in trying to apply what they had learned in the Grid Seminar. Malouf explained that this was due to a lack of understanding on the part of subordinates, peers, and superiors. Also, the participants were not in a position to support one another in their work environment. These negative factors made the improvements even more significant.[2]

It is difficult to say how representative these positive findings are for the many organizations practicing Grid OD. Intuitively, it is felt that such pay-back is the exception and can be regarded as a premium to what is normally expected. The value of the Grid Seminar, therefore, is in the learning experience that it provides, which enables

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[1]Rush, Behavioral Science Concepts, p. 96.

[2]LeRoy G. Malouf, "Managerial Grid Evaluated," Training and Development Journal, March, 1966, pp. 14-15.

an organization to change successfully through subsequent organization development phases.

Phase II: Teamwork Development

Phase II begins when actual work teams have had all of their members through Phase I. This means that Phase II begins while Phase I is still continuing. Phase II team development sessions are held away from the work environment so that team members will not be interrupted with the problems of daily operations. The work that is done is based on Grid concepts, but, unlike Phase I, the analysis and problem-solving work deals with real problems vis-à-vis hypothetical cases. In preparing for the sessions, each man prepares analyses covering the culture of the work team, and problems confronting the team and proposed solutions. One of the most valuable aspects of Phase II training is that each person, except the top man in the organization and some wage level personnel, participates in teamwork development activities as members of at least two separate teams. The first experience in these activities is as a member of a team as a subordinate, and the second one is as a boss with the other team members as subordinates.[1] This is essentially the same type of training advocated by Rensis Likert in his "Linking Pin" concept.[2]

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[1]Blake and Mouton, Corporate Excellence Through Grid Organization Development, p. 96.

[2]Likert, New Patterns of Management, p. 115.

Objectives of teamwork development

Replacing outmoded traditions and practices with a problem-solving culture.--The method by which this objective is approached is through establishment of an ideal model for team problem-solving. Once members finally agree on what the model should be, they then set about determining where they have been working relative to this ideal model. Grid studies have shown that teams that discuss and agree on an ideal model for team problem-solving are much more objective and accurate in subsequently arriving at a valid description of the present situation than are teams that eliminate the former stage. The theory[1] is that once people have agreed on an ideal model, they will be in a much better position for changing their performance to what it should be.[2]

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[1]Blake and Mouton use the term "conclusion" versus theory, without offering supporting evidence. By their statement there is an implication that people will work toward attainment of the agreed upon ideal model. One could not argue that if a person realizes his shortcomings he is in a better position to correct them than if he does not perceive them at all. But to imply that with shortcomings recognized people will work to correct them is misleading, and contrary to the well-recognized problem of resistance to change. A prime example of this is illustrated by the following quotation:

"Our favorite example of resistance was furnished by a farmer in the TVA area. He assured us that he knew all about contour plowing, the rotation of crops, and the use of what he called 'phosaphate' for improving the soil. He allowed as how these were good ideas, 'But,' he said, 'I don't do it that way.'" Alvin Zander, "Resistance to Change--Its Analysis and Prevention," Advanced Management Journal, January, 1950, pp. 9-11.

[2]Blake and Mouton, Corporate Excellence Through Grid Organization Development, pp. 97-101.

A barrier that could prove difficult, in trying to bring about change through Phase II, is natural resistance to change. This could occur on the part of a work group as a unit or with individuals within the group. If the group is highly cohesive and its norms are contrary to those of the organization, then the group may rally its members to resist the Phase II changes.[1] Should resistance occur, the source of the trouble may be traced to problems in the conduct of Phase I, or in leadership in the organization that is not committed to Grid concepts. In the case of individual members that resist the changes, they will very likely be influenced by the group to accept the changes as long as the norms of the group support Grid concepts.[2]

Increasing personal objectivity in self-assessment of work behavior.--During the sessions team members assess the performance and Grid styles of the other members. Each man is confronted with actual examples characteristic of his behavior. Because these assessments of behavior are made by men that are in the best position to observe each other closely, it is difficult for individuals not to accept them as being valid. Because of this type of interaction in the Phase II sessions, objectivity is strengthened.

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[1]Clovis R. Shepherd, Small Groups: Some Sociological Perspectives (San Francisco: Chandler Publishing Co., 1964), pp. 85-96.

[2]Ibid., pp. 70-81.

Setting standards for excellence.--Work standards differ among individuals, and certainly their concept of what constitutes "excellence" also varies. The Phase II sessions work to eliminate these differences so that each member clearly understands what the standards and goals are. According to Blake and Mouton, once agreement has been reached as to scope of responsibility, work standards, and goals for achieving excellence, with few exceptions organization effectiveness is increased. Again, an implication is made that does not consider the problems of resistance to change.

Establishing objectives for team and individual achievements.--Specific objectives for change are established, for the team and individual members, as a culmination of Phase II activities. This chain of events is based on the belief that management by objectives can be successful only when critical barriers in the team culture have been eliminated.

Increasing teamwork skills.--In Phase I, results of the problem-solving sessions are convincing that the work can be synergistic; that is, the solution reached by team effort is superior to that reached by any individual. Based on this learning experience, members are more ready to exert effort to develop the skills of the work team in Phase II. Analogous to this effort is the football team and its constant effort to develop team skills.

Using critique for learning.--Experience in Phase II activities has shown this objective to have had the greatest impact on team performance improvement. Critique covers a review of past and present performance, and ways to improve future performance. The greatest improvements have been found to exist in groups that prior to Phase II never practiced critique.[1]

What Is the Value of Phase II Training?

Negative findings

No negative findings of any consequence were discovered, except for a comment made by the president of Corinthian Broadcasting, and one of Greiner's findings in his study at the United States Forest Service. The president of Corinthian Broadcasting, who had sent all of his top executives through Phase I, argued that Grid OD phases beyond the Grid Seminar were not necessary, and commented: "We thought we got 90% of the value of Grid in Phase I."[2] Unless Corinthian's organization is an extreme exception, it is difficult to see how this comment can be totally valid.

Greiner discovered an interesting finding when he sought to determine if Phase II strengthened a manager's acceptance of Grid theory. A questionnaire was submitted

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[1]Blake and Mouton, Corporate Excellence Through Grid Organization Development, pp. 101-16.

[2]"Grid Puts Executives on the Griddle," p. 159.

six months after participation in Phase I. The survey indicated that those that had also been through Phase II now had a lower degree of acceptance of Grid theory than those that had been through Phase I only. Greiner was surprised at this result and suggested that the procedures being used in Phase II be closely examined. One possible explanation for this result, stemming directly from the author's conclusions in Chapter II, concerns his contention that the Grid represents a dichotomy. It is felt that the problem begins when managers are told that 9,9 is best, which means that they should strive to integrate a high concern for both people and production and at the same time reject leadership behavior represented by the other blocks on the Grid. When managers become involved in situations in which the circumstances necessitate--for example, a "hands-off" approach, an extra degree of kindness, or quick and stern action--they may conclude that the Grid precludes taking these courses, so they reject the Grid. Perhaps the managers that had been through Phase I only were not receiving the pressure to utilize and think about what they had learned, as were the managers that had been through Phase II. Therefore, they still accepted what they had learned because they had not been forced to confront actual situations in which they had to apply 9,9 thinking to a decision.

Positive findings

With the exception of the foregoing two instances, most findings for Phase II training were extremely positive. It seems that with Phase II the pay-back begins for most organizations. As expressed by the director of training and development at Texas Instruments, Incorporated, in commenting on the effects of Phase II, "The pay-off is five times as great."[1] Texas Instruments views the team-building process in Phase II as an integral part of its task- and goal-oriented management systems. As explained by the controller of the Science Services Division:

> The company's attempt to organize itself into several "small companies" with task-oriented units is a system that is unique in its particular application at TI. But until we started Grid training we had no device for building the teams that are necessary to make these organizational concepts really workable.[2]

Greiner, in his study at the United States Forest Service, found that there were more behavioral changes in those managers that had participated in both Phases I and II, as opposed to just Phase I.[3] In comparing units that had been through both Phases I and II, he found that those units that were quicker in following Phase I with Phase II showed a record of greater improvement in organization performance. Greiner recommended rapid follow-up, with

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[1] Ibid.

[2] Rush, Behavioral Science Concepts, p. 146.

[3] Greiner, "Grid-OD Evaluation," p. 21B.

Phase II training following Phase I.[1]

The manager for organization development at UNIROYAL, Incorporated, William J. Huck, reported that favorable changes had taken place in managers that had attended Grid Seminars; however, it was his impression that this change fades out over a period of time if no further development activity takes place to reinforce the initial learning. Regarding the results of the company's Phase II efforts, Huck commented:

> In the three plants where we have had work teams complete the Phase II, we have statements from the team members themselves that the "work climate" has improved. There is tangible evidence of increased supportive interaction, i.e., an increase in commitment to plant objectives as opposed to the previous dedication to narrow departmental goals. There has also been greater candor and openness at meetings and in 1 to 1 relationships.[2]

Phase II teamwork development appears to be a very valuable part of OD, and a phase in which the organization can expect to realize considerable pay-back. Without a team-building program, such as Phase II, an organization cannot expect to retain very much of what it has gained through laboratory training for individuals. But with the reinforcing effect of Phase II, behavioral changes can be expected. These behavioral changes may not be due to changes as far-reaching as alterations in basic personality, but are probably due more to the acceptance of new values

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[1] Ibid., p. 36A.

[2] Letter from William J. Huck, Manager for Organization Development, UNIROYAL, Inc., February 16, 1970.

or an effort to comply with group norms. Fiedler has said that to change one's leadership style requires changing personality structure.[1] There is not concurrence among authorities on Fiedler's contention. For example, Paul C. Buchanan stated that "personality change is not essential for behavioral changes to occur";[2] and Gordon L. Lippitt believes that personality change is not necessary for behavioral changes to occur, but rather, laboratory training can cause behavioral changes to occur as a result of the individual's taking on a new set of values.[3] Whatever the nature of the changes, empirical results show that beneficial behavioral changes do occur as a result of Phase II team-building. Not only do these changes support better teamwork, but if Phase II session attendance is properly planned, then members serving in two or more work groups will become more effective in their positions, the result being that these "linking pins" will serve to strengthen the organization.[4]

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[1]Fiedler, A Theory of Leadership Effectiveness, p. 248.

[2]Paul C. Buchanan, Evaluating the Effectiveness of Laboratory Training in Industry, Explorations in Human Relations Training and Research, Report No. 1 (Washington, D.C.: National Training Laboratories, NEA, 1965), p. 15.

[3]Interview with Gordon L. Lippitt, March 19, 1970.

[4]Likert, New Patterns of Management, p. 115.

Partial Grid Training: The Considerations

The training needs and the resources available certainly vary among organizations. As mentioned in the introduction to this chapter, many organizations that begin Grid training chose to complete only Phases I and II, with some completing just Phase I. There are also many differences in the percentages of the organizations' members that will be selected to participate in the training, whether it is just Phase I or all six phases. The degree to which Grid OD training is pursued is an important decision, and total organization involvement may not be appropriate. However, before a degree of partial Grid training is selected there are pitfalls that should be considered. The most adverse effect is the value that may be lost because of the re-entry problem that is created for individuals. The environmental resistance that the Grid participant will probably face may cause him eventually to revert to his original behavior. Two other possible adverse effects come to mind that are even less desirable.

The first occurs when a naturally authoritarian leader (9,1) attends a Grid Seminar, after which he makes a concerted effort to practice 9,9 leadership. Since this type of behavior is contrary to his basic personality, it could probably be described as 9,9,1 in terms of the Three-Dimensional Grid. As long as there is no pressure his new leadership style works well, but as soon as a crisis develops

he very likely reverts to his basic 9,1 style. Such vacillating leadership behavior can have detrimental effects on subordinates. These effects are reflected in a study performed by General Electric Company on the leadership styles of about ninety foremen. The men were categorized by leadership style as "democratic," "authoritarian," or "mixed." It was found that the workers with the lowest morale in the plant studied were working for foremen rated between the democratic and authoritarian extremes. The researchers hypothesized that these foremen were probably inconsistent in their leadership practices so that their men were left frustrated and unable to anticipate how they should be treated by their bosses.[1] Saul W. Gellerman, in discussing these findings, made the comment that: "The naturally autocratic supervisor who is exposed to human relations training may behave in exactly such a manner . . . a pattern which will probably make him even harder to work for than he was before being 'enlightened.'"[2] If this type of foreman had participated in Phase II sessions with his men, and also in sessions with some of the other foremen, the foregoing adverse effect would probably have been avoided.

The second possible adverse effect of partial Grid training stems from a lack of commitment to Grid training

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[1]Saul W. Gellerman, Motivation and Productivity (New York: American Management Association, 1963), pp. 42-43.

[2]Ibid., p. 43.

and its concepts by the top men in the organization. If organizational practices as delineated by top management are contrary to Grid concepts, exposure to Grid training could cause an individual, upon returning to his work, to revolt against the current practices. This possibility was well expressed by the personnel director of Reynolds Metals Company's Mill Products Division:

> In some instances the exposure to the Grid could be harmful to the organization. People who are exposed to a synthetic environment which involves commitment, cooperation and candor who then return to an environment which is in a direct antithesis of this become disenchanted and anti-establishment. This observation would preclude using the Grid as a gimmick or as a management development "fad."[1]

Summary

The first two phases of Grid OD are intended to bring about the necessary learning and behavioral changes so that the latter OD phases can succeed in achieving the desired changes in the organization. Phase I: The Grid Seminar is designed to serve as a learning experience for the individual, and to cause him to acquire a new set of values consistent with Grid concepts.

Phase II: Teamwork Development is designed to apply what was learned in Phase I to enhance communication and teamwork in the natural work group. Results indicate that significant improvements in managerial behavior and teamwork can result from Phase II, and that for best results and

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[1]Letter from Victor K. Schuster, Personnel Director for Reynolds Metals Company's Mill Products Division, January 21, 1970.

that for best results and maximum reinforcement of Phase I learning it is important to use Phase II as a quick follow-up to Phase I.

Grid Laboratory Training, encompassing both Phase I and Phase II, is often categorized as sensitivity training. There are important differences, however, the principal one being that Grid training is much more job and problem-solving oriented than classic sensitivity training is. Whereas sensitivity training may be concerned with all aspects of an individual's behavior, Grid training is concerned with just those aspects that have a bearing on management practices. Grid laboratory training or sensitivity training modified to include job-related exercises appears to be more valuable to an OD program than classic sensitivity training.

Some organizations engage in Grid OD through Phase II only, and some do not continue beyond Phase I. Also, there can be considerable differences in the extensiveness to which organizational levels and members are selected to participate in Grid training. Deciding on less than total organizational involvement in Grid OD may be consistent with the needs of the organization; however, should such a decision be incorrect, it could result in adverse consequences for the organization.

CHAPTER IV

CHANGING THE ORGANIZATION THROUGH GRID OD

Although Grid OD encompasses six phases, the first two phases are considered management development, and the last four phases are considered organization development. In this chapter, Phases III through VI of Grid OD will be described, and empirical results from companies involved in Grid OD will be presented. A final section of the chapter will address the problem of the lack of evaluative studies on the results of Grid training.

Phase III: Intergroup Development

Phase III is a natural evolvement from Phases I and II. All three phases are designed to improve communication by eliminating the barriers found in the individual, in the work teams, and finally in intergroup relations.[1] In Phase III the emphasis is on group-to-group working relationships, and the development of ground rules and norms beyond the single work groups that are based on 9,9 values. Figure 8 outlines the Grid approach to analyzing different ways groups often relate to one another, and the proper 9,9 approach. In the laboratory sessions, situations are created

[1]Blake and Mouton, Corporate Excellence Through Grid Organization Development, p. 8.

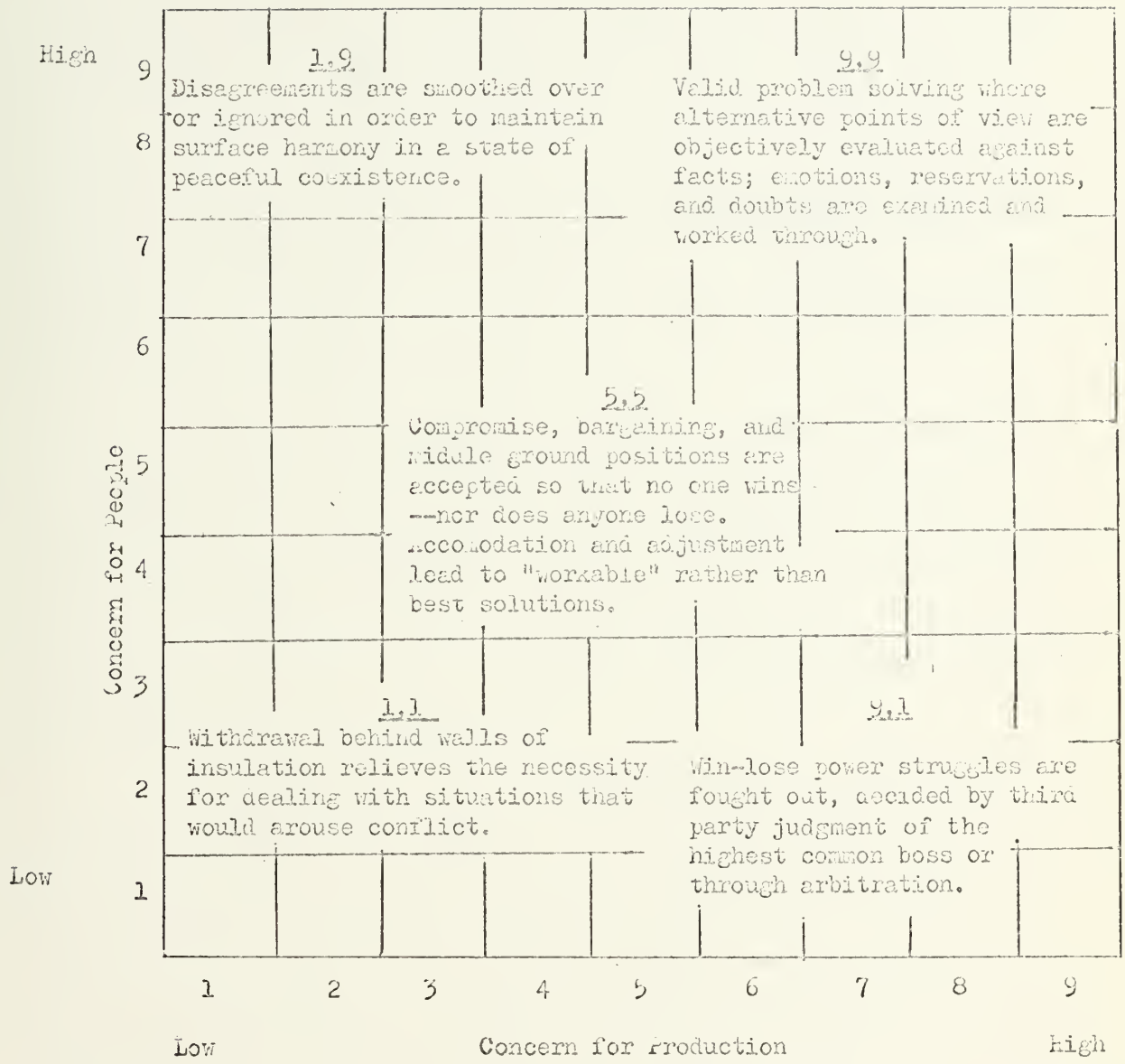
High
Low
Concern for People
9
8
7
6
5
4
3
2
1
1.9
Disagreements are smoothed over or ignored in order to maintain surface harmony in a state of peaceful coexistence.
9.9
Valid problem solving where alternative points of view are objectively evaluated against facts; emotions, reservations, and doubts are examined and worked through.
5.5
Compromise, bargaining, and middle ground positions are accepted so that no one wins --nor does anyone lose. Accomodation and adjustment lead to "workable" rather than best solutions.
1.1
Withdrawal behind walls of insulation relieves the necessity for dealing with situations that would arouse conflict.
9.1
Win-lose power struggles are fought out, decided by third party judgment of the highest common boss or through arbitration.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
Low
Concern for Production
High

Fig. .--The Grid Approach for Analyzing Solutions to Intergroup Disputes

Source: Robert R. Blake and Jane S. Mouton, Corporate Excellence Through Grid Organization Development: A Systems Approach (Houston, Texas: Gulf Publishing Co., 1968), p. 169.

that highlight tensions that may exist between groups, thereby providing the opportunity for these tensions to be analyzed by the participating groups. The principal aim is to eliminate the common "win-lose" relationship that so often exists between groups, and replace it with a joint problem-solving atmosphere. Through use of exercises whereby naturally competing work groups have to depend on intergroup procedures in order to arrive at solutions, elimination of the "win-lose" relationships seems possible.

This same technique is also extended to managers on the same level, but in different departments, where a great deal of competition exists. The laboratory sessions strive to replace extreme competitiveness, which may place departmental goals ahead of those of the organization, with an atmosphere of cooperation.[1]

It is possible for an organization to proceed successfully through Phases I and II, but not be able to achieve positive results in Phase III. This is not to suggest that something is wrong in the design of Phase III, for it is considered a sound approach to dealing with intergroup conflict.[2] The problem with Phase III is that it must rely on the willingness of the participating groups to work out their problems of conflict. Some groups may be unwilling

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[1]Blake et al., "Breakthrough in Organization Development," p. 138.

[2]Edgar H. Schein, Organizational Psychology (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1965), pp. 83-84.

to openly recognize that a problem exists; nor are they willing to try to work out a solution. The reason for such lack of cooperation may stem from the group's recognition that if it becomes more cooperative it may lose some of its identity and integrity as a group. Should an organization reach such an impasse in Phase III, it should consider its past practices relative to preventing the development of intergroup conflict. Reduction of intergroup conflict can occur through such practices as frequent rotation of members among groups, avoidance of win-lose situations in which groups compete against one another, and the giving of awards based on efforts that help other groups and/or the entire organization.[1] Based on Schein, a speculation is that in some organizations where it is necessary to develop highly cohesive and task-oriented work teams in Phase II, difficulties could arise in Phase III in trying to get these teams to cooperate with other groups.

Phase IV: Developing an Ideal Strategic Model

Phase IV begins activity that is concerned with planning and attainment of organizational objectives. Without Phases I through III, and the elimination of barriers to effective communication, success in Phase IV would probably not be possible. As explained by Blake and Mouton:

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[1] Ibid., p. 85.

> Having completed Phases I through III, organization members are eager to move forward. They are alert and aware of fundamental discrepancies between what should take place and what actually is occurring. Furthermore, they are prepared to take steps essential for moving forward. Without having completed Phases I through III, challenging the business traditions of a company and of the key executives who lead it is difficult. When a business is operating fairly well, either little thought is given to the question or the assumption is likely to be made that business logic already is being applied. Attempts to introduce and apply concepts of logic are likely to be met by defensiveness, with deep feelings that unfair criticism is being lodged against a management which has striven mightily to attain the results already achieved. Only after corporate executives (1) have learned to use critique for self-examination, (2) have experienced the power of thinking in terms of models, and (3) have come to grips with their own teamwork barriers, is there a sufficient degree of openness, candor, and commitment available for people to want to challenge and correct on a self-convincing basis the business logic beneath their current business performance.[1]

One authority on organization development, Dr. Gordon L. Lippitt, does not agree that design of the ideal strategic model should occur as Phase IV. He believes that this activity should occur as Phase I, prior to the actual beginning of OD. Dr. Lippitt's rationale is based on the belief that an organization's management needs to know where it is and where it is going prior to embarking on an OD program.[2] This belief stems from a concept that Dr. Lippitt developed with Warren Schmidt concerning the life cycle of organizations. This concept, which is represented by what is termed a situational confrontation model,

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[1]Blake and Mouton, Corporate Excellence Through Grid Organization Development, p. 205.

[2]Interview with Dr. Lippitt, March 19, 1970.

is explained in a recent book by Dr. Lippitt as follows:

> Such a model, closely related to the organic change concept, stresses the need for reality assessment within the organization with respect to its present state of affairs, for identification of the key issues or concerns the organization is now facing, and for planned efforts to confront that situation with those activities or actions which will help cope with the present situation to achieve growth for the people, the process, and the organization. The emphasis on situational confrontation re-emphasizes the relevance of the existential leadership concept. . . .[1]

Then, based on the situational confrontation model, an organization's leadership patterns and management practices are correctly dependent on the present state of the organization. It follows that an organization would be foolish to embark on a fairly static OD program such as Grid OD without first assessing its present circumstances. Blake and Mouton have anticipated this criticism of Phase IV and offer the following argument in support of the present sequence of the phases:

> In a few experimental Grid Organization Development projects, the design of an ideal strategic model was the first organization development activity. In no case was it possible to conclude that the experiment was a success, that it resulted in significant progress toward corporate excellence. The best explanation for lack of results from starting Grid Organization Development with the ideal strategic model is that in each instance it appeared to be impossible for the executive level of management to overcome their communication blockages. They did not effectively eliminate barriers to communication, which included win-lose power struggles, the unwitting readiness to compromise and accommodate, and unthinking acceptance of traditions, precedents, and past practices. The ideal strategic designs that were produced lacked so much that they

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[1]Gordon L. Lippitt, Organization Renewal (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Division of Meredith Corporation, 1969), p. 27.

> did not provide sound foundations for moving these corporations toward excellence. . . . Solving communication problems before designing an ideal strategic model seems to represent the soundest order of events while running minimum risk of failure.[1]

Nevertheless, it seems prudent to conduct at least a modified Phase IV prior to embarking on a full Grid OD program. By taking this approach an organization would be better able to decide to what degree it should commit itself to an OD program based on its current condition and the potential pay-back from the program.

Phase IV activities may continue over an extended period of time, but the initial development of the ideal strategic model takes at least a week of concentrated effort by the top officials in the organization. The work actually begins with prior preparation by each individual that is to participate. Individual study of several required business books and articles is required in order to give each participant the same fundamental concepts of business logic. The participants then enter into discussions until there is complete understanding and agreement on the concepts that were studied. The next step is examination of the present state of the organization as compared to the fundamental business concepts that have been studied. With disparities well identified, work can begin on designing the

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[1]Blake and Mouton, Corporate Excellence Through Grid Organization Development, p. 226.

ideal strategic model.[1] The model is centered around six key elements:

1. Definitions of minimum and optimum corporate financial objectives. In the case of a non-profit organization, the focus would be on cost reduction.
2. Descriptions in explicit terms of the nature and character of business activities.
3. Definitions in operational terms of the scope and character of customers and markets.
4. Structure for organizing and integrating business operations for synergistic results.
5. Basic policies to guide business decision-making.
6. Development requirements for avoiding obsolescence and exploiting growth capacity.[2]

When the ideal strategic model is completed, it is reviewed by various levels in the organization in order to provide an opportunity for evaluation and the making of constructive recommendations. There are two main objectives in subjecting the model to organizational review: (1) to ensure widespread understanding of the model, and (2) to solicit recommendations and ensure that the model is a product of the best thinking in the organization.[3]

Development of the ideal strategic model by the top management team significantly departs from the 9,9 concept of participation. Due to the nature of the task in Phase IV, a good deal of nonparticipative problem-solving is inevitable. However, it would seem to be far too

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[1] Ibid., p. 210.

[2] Ibid., p. 201.

[3] Ibid., p. 211.

inconsistent with a participative philosophy to proceed into Phase IV with just the top management team working to develop the ideal strategic model. Blake and Mouton recognize this possible flaw, but contend that by giving lower level members in the organization the opportunity to review the tentative model and to make recommendations for possible changes to it, the probability is increased that commitment to the model will be obtained.[1] Perhaps a better approach is suggested by Dr. Gordon L. Lippitt. Rather than just the top management team working on the ideal strategic model, Dr. Lippitt feels that it would be a more effective and acceptable approach to decentralize the task of development of the model among the appropriate functional departments. Their recommendations could then be submitted to top management for review and compilation of the various component parts of the model.[2]

The use of Delphi in Phase IV

Blake and Mouton suggest in a footnote that the use of the Delphi Technique[3] may improve Phase IV

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[1] Ibid., p. 226.

[2] Interview with Dr. Lippitt, March 19, 1970.

[3] The Delphi Technique works as follows: Normally, a group of experts are brought together to arrive at a judgmental decision. Each expert is asked to record his answer anonymously. Then each participant is given an opportunity to study all of the other answers, without knowing the identity of who recorded the answers. Then the process is repeated, probably three or four times and possibly even more. The objective is to reach a refined solution. By keeping identities anonymous, participants feel free to

processes.[1] Based on the popularity that the technique is gaining among companies for use in forecasting, it is reasonable to expect that many companies taking part in Grid OD will want to use Delphi in Phase IV. The technique is consistent with Grid concepts in two important aspects: (1) both Grid and Delphi stress the synergism of group decisions, and (2) neither is based on an extrapolation of the past. Rand Corporation has been using Delphi for many years to predict breakthroughs, generally of a technological, medical, or sociological nature. In application to industry, Norman Dalkey, of Rand, believes that a very valuable use can be made of Delphi in helping groups of executives define corporate goals, and in judging where the company ought to go and what it should be doing.[2] This application is the crux of Phase IV.

Phase V: Planning and Implementation

Phase V begins activity that is concerned with actual implementation of the model designed in Phase IV. Success in Phase V is dependent on the effectiveness with which behavioral science concepts were applied to the organization in the previous OD phases, particularly Phases I through III.

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change their minds, whereas in an open group session, members often feel compelled to defend their original opinions. ("Forecasters Turn to Group Guesswork," Business Week, March 14, 1970, p. 130.)

[1] Blake and Mouton, Corporate Excellence Through Grid Organization Development, p. 229.

[2] "Forecasters Turn to Group Guesswork," pp. 130-32.

During Phase V, management science techniques are relied upon to provide tactical approaches to attain the strategic objectives of Phase IV.

The administration of Phase V is carried out by a team consisting of a Phase V Coordinator, the Strategy Implementation Committee, and Planning Teams. The Phase V Coordinator acts in a staff capacity, reporting directly to the top official in the organization. He is also chairman of the Strategy Implementation Committee. This committee consists of members possessing the necessary management science skills and technical competence to design the tactical approaches that will be utilized, and to guide the Planning Teams in their work. The Planning Teams are responsible for certain sectors or divisible units of the organization, e.g., cost centers, profit centers, and investment centers. The Planning Teams are made up of line managers directly concerned with the particular area of activity assigned the Planning Team, and also of others who do not have a vested interest in the area assigned. The job of the Planning Team is to establish how its unit should be organized and operated relative to the ideal strategic model. In accomplishing this task a great deal of reliance is placed on operation research techniques, especially computer simulation and the testing of models. Actual implementation of the plans that are formulated by the Planning Teams is a line responsibility.

If an organization does not have personnel with management science skills necessary to properly carry out Phase V, then it has the alternative of engaging consultant assistance, recruiting the necessary talent, or training existing personnel. The latter solutions are preferable because there will be a definite need beyond Phase V to continue the use of tactical problem-solving employing management science techniques.[1]

Phase VI: Systematic Critique

Phase VI is basically an evaluation of what has been accomplished in the organization during the OD program. The value of critique as a method for strengthening problem solving is especially emphasized in this phase. The phase is also a means by which what has been learned during Grid OD becomes reinforced, thus helping to prevent tendencies from developing that would allow the organization to slip back into some of its prior habit patterns.

To aid critique, an instrument called the Corporate Excellence Rubric is used. The Rubric consists of seventy-two windows and enables an analysis, assessment, and critique of the organization's effectiveness, flexibility, and development in each of the following functional categories: human resources, financial management, operations, marketing, research and development, and corporate. Within each of

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[1]Blake and Mouton, Corporate Excellence Through Grid Organization Development, pp. 241-58.

the major divisions of the Rubric are four subdivisions which classify actions as internal or external, aggressive or defensive. Scales are provided which aid in evaluating the position of the organization within each category relative to standards that are considered goals of excellence for the organization.

Use of the Rubric is not limited to Phase VI. It can be used throughout Grid OD, and even prior to it, to enable the organization to gather data progressively and to make periodic evaluations as to the degree of improvement that is being made. Because of the important data that the Rubric contains, it should be widely promulgated throughout the organization for the purpose of study and interpretation, and the making of recommendations for post-Phase VI development.

The end of Phase VI does not necessarily mark the end of Grid OD for an organization. Because of personnel turnover and promotions, it may be necessary to repeat previous phases. Also, an organization may feel that the most benefit can be derived by viewing OD as an on-going program, and upon completion of Phase VI begin a completely new Grid OD cycle. Though there is definite overlap between each Grid OD phase, and each is subject to modification to fit the needs of the organization, it is important that an organization approach each phase systematically and with clearly defined objectives.[1]

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[1] Ibid., pp. 226-72.

What Is the Value of Grid OD?

Reported results

There were no findings that would indicate that Grid OD can have any adverse effects on an organization, or that the program is not capable of accomplishing all of its objectives. These objectives have all been presented in describing the Grid OD phases. Where the author has judged that difficulties could occur in some program phase or that a pitfall might exist, these factors have been pointed out. The author reviewed several articles on companies involved in Grid OD, and all of them reported similar favorable results. It is difficult to assess how representative these reports are for all organizations that are using the Grid in OD programs; however, there is no reason to believe that such reports are not a good indication of the types of results that can be expected.

Typical of the types of Grid OD results being reported by companies are those found by Greiner and Barnes in a study they performed at Humble Oil and Refinery. They found the following improvements to be directly attributable to the Grid OD program:

1. A significant profit increase due to a reduction in controllable costs.
2. Managers were now conducting better meetings with improved communications.
3. Improved relationships had occurred between bosses and subordinates, within work groups, and between work groups.

4. Improved attitudes and values among managers had occurred.[1]

Most of the companies reporting results of Grid training can be considered large companies. This is logical because the larger organizations can in most cases better afford the costs of such training programs as Grid OD, and also, they are perhaps in greater need of organization development. One small company, however, that reported positive results from a Grid OD program was Raymond Corporation. The company is a small manufacturer of material handling equipment, with only 850 employees. Raymond Corporation has been deeply committed to a Grid OD program and attributes many improvements to the Grid training. The company cites improvements in the following areas: cooperation among employees, more creative approaches to problem-solving, lower employee turnover rates, and improved profitability. While the company does give much of the credit for these improvements to its Grid OD program, it does not regard the Grid as a panacea for solving organizational problems. As explained by Raymond's president:

> The Grid is the best program that we know of--if you want a packaged program--but it is only the beginning, an eye-opener, that helps to open up the organization's culture.[2]

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[1]Blake et al., "Breakthrough in Organization Development," pp. 141-55.

[2]Rush, Behavioral Science Concepts, p. 119.

Involving lower organizational levels

It is clear that Grid OD is far more than a program of management development and improvement in organizational planning. It also offers the opportunity to involve all organizational members. This is what Humble Oil and Refinery and Texas Instruments, Incorporated, are attempting to do with their Grid OD programs. At Humble, after about four years of involvement in Grid OD, the decision was made to extend the Grid training to the wage-earner level. In-house Grid Seminars were scheduled for this group of employees, and approximately 1,400 participated in the training. To evaluate the results, two outside organization development researchers spent several days interviewing people to try to determine the results. Their findings were all positive, and they concluded that there was a clear indication of:

1. Increased commitment to the company and its purposes.
2. Increased solidarity and mutual support among those in the wage ranks.
3. The impact of the Grid education on the personal growth and development of wage level personnel.[1]

At Texas Instruments, involvement of wage-level personnel in Grid OD is being accomplished by having each foreman conduct a modified Grid Seminar for the men in his work group, after the foreman has returned from a Grid Seminar. The seminars are conducted entirely by the foremen, except that a member of the personnel staff observes the sessions.

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[1]Blake et al., "A Second Breakthrough," pp. 73-78.

By using the foremen in this manner, Texas Instruments believes that the foreman can act as a medium through which development of the creativity and resourcefulness of the natural work groups can occur.[1]

The Need for Evaluative Studies on the Results of Grid Training

There is a conspicuous lack of studies designed to determine the pay-back from Grid training programs. One of the main reasons why companies do not attempt to conduct evaluative studies on their training efforts is the difficulty of identifying and measuring organizational change and development. The problem is one of isolating the changes that are attributed to the training from those that are attributed to the many other variables.[2] Nevertheless, studies should be conducted if organizations are going to spend their training funds rationally. In the words of Greiner and Barnes: ". . . this complexity provides no excuse for not attempting to evaluate such programs. The important thing is to approach the project with some qualms and to apply caution."[3]

Studies by Greiner and Barnes

Larry E. Greiner and Louis B. Barnes, of Harvard, appear to have taken the lead in evaluating Grid training.

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[1] Rush, Behavioral Science Concepts, p. 154.

[2] Blake et al., "Breakthrough in Organization Development," p. 139.

[3] Ibid.

They conducted the study on Grid OD at Humble Oil and Refinery, which is the most comprehensive evaluation that could be found on Grid OD. The main criticism of the Humble study is that it was performed after Grid OD had begun. The other major study that was found was performed by Greiner on the results of Grid OD Phases I and II in the United States Forest Service. Greiner and Barnes are currently performing an evaluative study on the Grid OD program being conducted in the Southwest District of the Internal Revenue Service. They were able to obtain the necessary information and measurements in the organization prior to the start of the Grid training. As the program progresses they will obtain two kinds of information: (1) social-psychological factors, such as how conflicts are resolved, how cohesive work groups are, how supervisors' behavior is seen by subordinates; and (2) performance facts, such as absenteeism, turnover, quality of production.[1]

In-house evaluative studies

Though there is evidence that a few organizations are beginning to show interest in conducting comprehensive evaluations of their Grid programs by retaining outside consultants, there is practically no evidence that such studies are being attempted on an in-house basis. Fred E. Fiedler, in discussing leadership training programs, made

[1]McAllister, "Pursuit of Excellence," p. 95.

the following critical remarks on the status of studies to determine the value of these programs:

> It might also be pointed out that the yearly amount expended for training programs of this sort in the United States is likely to stagger the imagination. It is all the more unfortunate, therefore, that the development of these programs, as well as the utilization of other leadership selection devices, has not been matched by an appropriate number of adequate evaluative studies. Organizations have been more than happy to spend money on training programs but they have been considerably less eager to find out whether the training really does any good.[1]

The only exceptions to the foregoing that were found were Corning Glass Works and Lever Brothers, Limited of Canada. Corning's policy is to conduct evaluations on each stage of training prior to making commitments for further training.[2] Lever Brothers of Canada is nearing completion of an in-depth study of the results of its Grid activities. From conversation with Anthony Pearson, of Scientific Methods, Incorporated, it was learned that the Lever Brothers' study will very likely be the most complete evaluation on the Grid to date. Based on this report, Lever Brothers is to decide to what extent Grid training will be used in the rest of its international organization. Unfortunately, Lever Brothers of Canada would not release information from the report until it has been completed and presented to company headquarters in England.[3]

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[1]Fiedler, A Theory of Leadership Effectiveness, p. 251.

[2]Rush, Behavioral Science Concepts, p. 96.

[3]Letter from L. F. Strong, Lever Brothers of Canada, February 5, 1970.

Studies by Blake and Mouton

One author leveled meaningful criticism at the developers and promoters of "human relations laboratory training."[1] The term "human relations laboratory training" is not a very accurate description of Grid training, but since Wolfe referenced Blake and Mouton in defining what he meant by the term, it can be assumed that Grid training was also intended for criticism. Wolfe questioned if the objectives of human relations laboratory training were being defined, if evidence had been presented to show that the training was contributing to the solution of regularly occurring problems in organizations. In response to these questions, Wolfe pointed out that an extensive review of the applicable literature revealed a great deal of enthusiasm for human relations laboratory training, but also commented: ". . . the lack of evidence of behavioral changes derived from sophisticated, scientifically designed research studies is particularly noticeable." Wolfe even suggested that the popularity and growth of this type of training was due primarily to good salesmanship on leaders of organizations who are willing to give the program a try in the hope that some of the organization's problems will be corrected. Wolfe summed up his criticism by the following remarks:

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[1]Wendell W. Wolfe, "Human Relations Laboratory Training: Three Questions," Journal of Business, XXXIX, No. 4 (October, 1966), 512-15.

> The human relations training laboratory, in spite of its popularity, has not yet presented real scientific credentials. Those who conduct the laboratories should be obliged to submit empirical evidence showing that the laboratories actually do produce changes augmenting the spread of better leadership in the solution of organizational problems. Such evidence is long overdue.[1]

It would be unfair to reason that all of the foregoing criticism was directed at Grid training. Wolfe gives no clue as to which form of human relations laboratory training (e.g., sensitivity training versus Grid training) is meant to receive the greater portion of the criticism. In reviewing the literature on these two types of training, it would appear that most of the criticism is more appropriately directed to sensitivity training. Still, the article has much applicability to Grid training. While Blake and Mouton have defined the objectives of their training methods, and do offer some evidence to support these methods, they have not promoted comprehensive evaluative studies of the type that Wolfe described above. Blake's position on evaluating the results of Grid training appears to be that of relying on long-range results reported by organizations. An indication of this is found in the following passage from The Managerial Grid:

> As more organizations take deliberate steps to move in a 9,9 direction, the next decade should provide a more precise basis for evaluating the kinds of results possible from this organization style.[2]

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[1] Ibid., p. 515.

[2] Blake and Mouton, The Managerial Grid, p. 180.

A better indication of this attitude can be seen in the following remarks made by Blake:

> The main criticism from management is that the Grid isn't strong, is "too idealistic," or "unbelievable." However, my reply is to take a look at the results. It has worked for a number of companies. . . . The change in profitability for a company is the most exciting result of all. Profits come in right across the board. Where the projects have been going for some years, the measured increase in profits due to the program has ranged from 30 to 300 per cent according to these companies' own estimates.[1]

One could not argue that long-range operating results are the most meaningful evaluative measure, but to emphasize such a measure could hinder periodic corrective changes in the program methods. Should operating results eventually prove that Grid training is not successful, the promotion of the Grid will have proven to be a success in terms of profit for Scientific Methods, Incorporated.[2]

Dr. Lippitt disagrees with the author's assessment and criticism of Blake for not conducting more evaluative studies on Grid methods. He did, however, feel that Blake could be criticized for not involving other prominent researchers in the field and encouraging them to carry out comprehensive studies on the results of Grid training.[3]

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[1]William Robertson, "The Managerial Grid," Monetary Times, August, 1965, p. 19.

[2]Blake and Mouton, and their families, own all of the stock of Scientific Methods, Inc. ("Grid Puts Executives on the Griddle," p. 159.)

[3]Interview with Dr. Lippitt, March 19, 1970.

Evaluations through use of human resource accounting

A new field of development that could prove to be a very valuable method for evaluating the worth of training programs such as Grid OD is human resource accounting. Current research on human resource accounting is working to find ways to evaluate investments in human resources in terms of expected payoff or return on investment. When such methods become operational, training programs will be undertaken only when they are calculated to be a profitable investment.[1]

Summary

Phase III begins activity designed to result in changes to the entire organization. If the objectives of Phase III can be successfully achieved, and intergroup conflict replaced by collaborative problem solving, then the way is cleared to apply strategic and tactical planning, modern management science techniques in problem solving, and data gathering and systematic critique, to increase the competitiveness of the organization and move it toward attainment of its objectives.

The chief barrier to success in Phase III is the unwillingness of groups and individuals to cooperate with one another. If Phase III is not immediately successful,

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[1]R. Lee Brummet, Eric G. Flamholtz, and William C. Pyle, "Human Resource Measurement--A Challenge for Accountants," The Accounting Review, XLIII, No. 2 (April, 1968), 220.

top management may have to work toward elimination of the barriers to Phase III success by reliance on long-range management methods that will prevent intergroup conflict from developing in the first place. Some of the methods that would have to be used, e.g., frequent rotation of group members, could necessitate a reduction in the level of cohesion in work groups.

In development of the ideal strategic model in Phase IV, organizations may find it desirable to alter Grid methods and employ greater participation in development of the model. Development of the ideal strategic model as Phase IV of Grid OD is appropriate; however, there is a sound argument that would also include Phase IV, at least on a modified basis, in a phase preceding the start of Phase I and the decision to embark on an OD program. The Delphi Technique is definitely applicable to Phase IV, and, based on the success of Rand Corporation in using the method, some organizations may find that Delphi enhances the creative thinking necessary for the development of an ideal strategic model.

Phase V marks the beginning of activity designed to achieve sweeping changes in the organization. From the ideal strategic model developed in Phase IV, Phase V Planning Teams, utilizing management science methods, go to work to establish tactical approaches that will provide line management with methods to enable them to attain the organization's strategic objectives.

Phase VI is a natural sequel to Phase V and an important culmination process to Grid OD. The Phase VI Rubric facilitates assessment and critique of progress in OD, and provides a basis for corrective action and the planning of future development of the organization.

An important aspect of Grid OD is that the program can be extended to the development of lower organizational levels. Some organizations are taking this step and are finding the results to be beneficial.

A serious deficiency of Grid OD is that it is not supported by comprehensive evaluative studies. There seems to be a reluctance on the part of both the organizations participating in Grid OD and the developers of the Grid to conduct meaningful evaluations to determine the results of Grid training.

CHAPTER V

GRID OD IN THE UNITED STATES NAVY

The author is a lieutenant in the United States Navy Supply Corps. It is because of this, and his interest in the application of Grid concepts to the Navy, that this chapter is included. Topics to be discussed in the chapter will include a report on the one Navy command that is actively engaged in Grid OD, the applicability of Grid concepts to ships and other combat units, and the inclusion of Grid training in the curriculum of officer training commands.

Grid OD at Naval Electronics Laboratory Center, San Diego

Program development

The Naval Electronics Laboratory Center (NELC), San Diego, commenced Grid OD in March 1968. The Center's initial step into the program began on an in-house basis with a series of nine Phase I sessions, with approximately forty individuals at each session. The training was considered successful, and as a result it was included as a regular part of in-house management training, open to all professional, supervisory, and key technical personnel.

Phase II team participation began with the Center Commander and his top-management team, including division

heads and their key personnel. Difficulties were encountered in some of the teams in achieving the required degree of open communication. Still, it was felt that Phase II was successful in achieving important changes in teamwork methods.[1]

The Center moved from Phase II to Phase IV, skipping Phase III, because it was felt that Phase III was inapplicable to NELC. Phase IV began with the Center's eleven top managers meeting to consider the basis for management at NELC. The result was the formulation of thirty-nine policies which were designed to serve as a specific basis for guiding management action. The remainder of the Phase IV endeavor was devoted to development of a model for the ideal operation of NELC, and the identification of specific areas requiring corrective change.

The Center is now involved in Phase V, during which it is striving to implement all of the changes necessary to move the organization in the direction of the ideal model developed in Phase IV. Accomplishment of these changes will encompass the following fundamental steps:

1. Achieve understanding and agreement among all managers of what the model is and what it means.
2. Develop standard descriptions of the work done at NELC in such fashion as to simplify quantifying work and give management visibility.

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[1]"Management Training: Key to Organization Development," Trade Talk (NAVSO P-3019, printed by Office of Civilian Manpower Management, Navy Department), III, No. 7 (July-August, 1969), 3-5.

3. Develop measures of effectiveness for work output and work cost, together with such other measures of effectiveness as will provide a more accurate picture of management results.
4. Develop measures of effectiveness for development and utilization of personnel resources.
5. Devise management controls which make fullest use of the measures of effectiveness.
6. Devise financial controls which support and enhance financial measures of effectiveness.
7. Develop scientific concepts of marketing and organizational elements for support, planning, and control of marketing functions.
8. Plan detailed implementing action for these changes.[1]

Results to date

NELC's Commander reported that about 35 per cent of the Center's personnel had been through Phase I and about 8 per cent had been through Phase II. He attributes the following results to this training:

1. A noticeable improvement in the quality of vertical communication.
2. More active participation by middle and lower management levels in the overall Center work problems.
3. A quickened expectation of sound management and positive results by the majority of employees.[2]

Relevant to these results is a comment made by Captain Van Orden's predecessor, Captain William R. Boehm:

> We in top management tend to wear rose-colored glasses. We don't see many of the vested interests that grow up in any large organization and hamper its mission. These interests don't take too kindly to the penetrating look which they must undergo during this Organization

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[1]"OD Continues at NELC, San Diego," Trade Talk (NAVSO P-3019, printed by Office of Civilian Manpower Management, Navy Department), IV, No. 2 (February, 1970), 4.

[2]Letter from Captain M.D. Van Orden, USN, Commander, Naval Electronics Laboratory Center, San Diego, February 16, 1970.

> Development (OD) process. But I found the frank critiques of top management by lower supervisory levels one of the most fruitful aspects of this experience. When top managers hear a bright 33 year old engineer say "you're not giving me the challenge I need," it's awfully hard not to respond with action.[1]

An outgrowth of the OD program has been the establishment of command-appointed groups to study and recommend action that may be required in such areas as organizational goals and communication. Examples of some of the results to date include the scheduling of regular "all-hands meetings" and the printing of a periodic newsletter. Another similar group that has been established is the Research Planning Team. Its function is to investigate the needs of all Center groups that are interested in research, and to make recommendations that will meet these needs.

Examples of improved operating performance include the handling of a recent RIF (reduction in force) and the work that was done on the battleship New Jersey in preparing for her deployment to Southeast Asia. In the case of the RIF, there is general agreement that the degree of smoothness with which it was carried out, with the lack of parochial interests taking precedence over Center needs, can be attributed to the OD program. In the case of the New Jersey, it is felt that Phase II prepared the key managers involved in the project for the type of teamwork that was required. There is belief that the New Jersey project could not have

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[1] "Management Training," p. 5.

been performed nearly as successfully prior to Grid OD.[1]

Use of Grid OD Throughout the Navy

Results at NELC point the way to potential improvement in other Navy organizations. This is not to say that Grid OD, or the way it is being carried out at NELC, is the best approach, but consideration of the vast potential of a properly conducted OD program is in itself enough to set one to thinking that much good could be accomplished by organization development carried out on a large scale in the United States Navy. Not only are there many traditional organizational problems, the solutions of which could very possibly benefit from OD, but the Navy is beginning to face new and more difficult problems which are likely to become even more difficult if traditional organizational practices are followed. Prime examples of these newly evolving problem areas are:

1. The increased potential for Civil Service labor disputes at Navy installations.
2. Rising retention rate problems among enlisted members and junior officers.
3. The increasing necessity, due to reductions in military budgets and the rising costs of new weapons systems, of finding new and imaginative ways to reduce operating costs.

Should long-range results from the Grid OD program at NELC ultimately confirm the interim evaluation that the program is valuable, then it is easy to see how the same improvements could be achieved, with few exceptions,

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[1] Ibid., p. 6.

throughout the Navy Shore Establishment. Also, such an assessment is further supported by the fact that Grid OD and other OD programs are proving their value in civilian industry and other governmental agencies. The difficult question is evaluating the effectiveness, or, more appropriately, the applicability of Grid OD to ships and combat units, and to officer training programs.

Ships and combat units

Shipboard organizations and those of other combat units have been traditionally characterized as highly structured organizations with strict standards of discipline. Also, training requirements are rigorous because of the nature of the mission. Little information could be found that would lead to a sound conclusion about the applicability of Grid training under such circumstances; however, one article spoke out strongly in favor of the application of 9,9 concepts to combat leadership.

> A word needs to be said about 9,9 leadership and the combat situation. There is no implication that the battalion commander holds a meeting when he receives his order to "move out." Much is made in the military services of the concept that the battle is the payoff, that all training, all staff work, all management, or all logistics is geared to success in battle. Even though most officers will spend less than one-twentieth of their careers in combat, it should be understood that 9,9 leadership is not thrown out when the chips are down. Nor is it suggested that the tank commander, the airplane commander, or the ship's captain hesitate to make a decision, take a risk, or commit his forces when he should. The first 9 in 9,9 leadership is identical in degree with the 9 in 9,1. Concern for the mission is in the same amount for each of these two styles. The difference in the combat situation

> is in what has gone before. When a leader has operated in a 9,9 way in garrison, through training cycles, during the planning phases, and in his administration and logistics, he has built his team on a strong foundation of interdependence. He has undergirded his relationships with his subordinates with mutual respect, common goals, trust, and understanding. He has built up the operational skills essential for unexcelled achievement. Under these circumstances, the likelihood is at the maximum that the desired response will be forthcoming in emergencies. Of more importance, the same results are more likely to be achieved by his successor. Should the leader be absent, or become a casualty, the unit does not fall apart. The team has the capability to close ranks and fill the void left by the absent leader.[1]

In the previously mentioned letter from NELC's Commander, Captain Van Orden indicated support for the application of Grid concepts to military organizations. His comments were as follows:

> In the Phase IV and Phase V Grid activities the emphasis on goals and objectives, together with the development of a strategy for attaining them and an organization designed to carry out that strategy, has a very familiar military atmosphere about it. It is clear in this context that the Phase I and II training have a definite place in bringing subordinates to an understanding of what is expected in terms of teamwork. The requirements for candor, participation in planning, and commitment to objectives are not at all out of place in a military staff. It is well to note also that all of these requirements can be met within a framework of military discipline.[2]

The only other Naval officer who had had any direct contact with the Grid, and could be located, was Captain C. F. Moul, Commander, Naval Officer Candidate School, Newport, Rhode Island. Captain Moul had attended a Grid Seminar in the

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[1]Robert R. Blake, Jane S. Mouton, and Colonel E. Dale Bryson, USA, "The Military Leadership Grid," Military Review, June, 1968, p. 18.

[2]Letter from Captain Van Orden, February 16, 1970.

spring of 1969. In a letter he commented on the use of the Grid aboard ship:

> Aboard ship, there may be some application among the officers and/or chief and first class petty officers. I think that it is well worth the effort of running pilot seminars with appropriate feedback to see what benefits might accrue.[1]

From the author's point of view, based on his experiences during two tours of sea duty, three areas for possible improvement through application of Grid concepts seem evident.

Leadership.--To a large extent leadership training does not go below the junior officer level. The development of leadership ability among petty officers is basically dependent upon: (1) experience, (2) correspondence courses, (3) occasional attendance at leadership training courses ashore, and (4) shipboard lectures. The result is that, in general, only a very few petty officers develop into strong and effective leaders, and the development of those is probably due primarily to the basic outstanding nature of the individual and the passage of time. Consequently, an extremely heavy leadership burden is placed on the junior division officer, with the expectation that he will be able to meet the challenge and mold his division into a proud, hard-working, and effective team of men. This challenge has been the traditional proving ground for young Naval officers,

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[1]Letter from Captain C. F. Moul, USN, Commander, Naval Officer Candidate School, Newport, R.I., March 4, 1970.

and it has been regarded as an opportunity and a challenge which a young officer should accept as a privilege. There are many attributes of this tradition, but the principal disadvantages are that the division so often does not turn out to be a proud, hard-working, and effective team of men; and that the junior officer frequently gets out of the service. No suggestion is being made that the junior officer should be any less a leader, but he should have a fair opportunity to enjoy success in his leadership. This could very likely be accomplished through shipboard OD programs, which could cause: (1) petty officers to confront their leadership responsibilities; (2) the opening of communication channels so that there would be a free flow of feedback between subordinates and superiors; and (3) teams to become better identified, with a focus on individual responsibilities to the team. The late General George C. Patton, by using a fork to pull a noodle across his plate, once illustrated his contention that the effective leader must be out in front to lead, but not so far that he loses contact with his subordinates.[1] This is excellent advice for a young officer, but successful results and an effective ship could be better assured if an OD program went to work on the noodle (with Phase I and II Grid sessions) so that the noodle would move forward automatically, without having to be pulled.

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[1]Koontz and O'Donnell, Principles of Management, p. 629.

Intergroup conflict.--Intergroup conflict is rampant aboard ship. Seldom does one see an instance in which intergroup collaboration is in motion to work out a common problem for the good of the ship. The only examples of intergroup unity that come to mind are in rebelling against a policy of the executive officer or commanding officer, in complaining about the chow, in banding together against members of another ship's crew in a fight ashore, and, it is hoped, in battle, when the immediate danger and fear of death make the entire crew a fighting unit. But, in everyday work aboard ship, there is a constant and fierce struggle on-going between groups. Part of this is due to such factors as the physical separation of the various groups and the high degree of cohesion that builds up in groups that work and sleep in very close proximity to each other. Another important factor is the high degree of competition that exists between these groups and the win-lose relationships that result. Much of this competition is probably inevitable, but it seems that a good deal of it could be eliminated. Edgar H. Schein has pointed out that a misconception exists among many managers that competition is desirable and that pitting people or groups against one another in competitive situations will result in improved performance. This competition could work in the short tun, but could have adverse consequences in the long run. Schein feels that groups should never be placed in the position of competing for some

organizational reward, but rather, emphasis should always be placed on the pooling of organizational resources, with rewards shared equally among all groups or departments.[1] Schein's opinion is definitely not an isolated one, but is a shared consensus of his professional colleagues. The most common consequence of shipboard intergroup conflict seems to be that horizontal communication and collaboration on problem-solving is greatly reduced. The result of this is that problems tend to be pushed up in the organizational hierarchy, often going to an inordinately high level, such as that of the department head or executive officer. Grid OD Phase III seems to be an excellent way of working toward elimination of such poor organizational practices.

Planning.--There is frequently an absence of effective intermediate and long-range planning that deals with matters such as utilization of financial and personnel resources, training, and the assignment of priorities. By assignment of priorities it is meant that a closer scrutiny should be given to programs and activities in which a trade-off relationship may exist, in order to determine which activity should receive the greater emphasis. Situations such as this often arise when trying to meet the requirements of both an administrative and an operational commander. An approach that in effect treats each requirement equally by trying to accomplish each one fully often results in

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[1]Schein, Organizational Psychology, p. 85.

suboptimal performance for the ship in terms of its primary mission. Of course there are written regulations and policies that, if followed, assuming it is physically possible to do so, would probably preclude many of the foregoing problem areas. In reality, however, an effective approach could be fairly well assured only through application of such a technique as Grid OD Phases IV and V.

Based on the passage cited from the Blake, Mouton, and Bryson article,[1] it would seem that Grid concepts would not be inappropriate in any combat organization. And based on the author's foregoing observations and the comments of Captain Moul and Captain Van Orden, it must be concluded that the application of Grid concepts and OD are definitely appropriate in working to solve problems in the shipboard organization. No mention has been made of how such a program could be carried out. To discuss this area would require going well beyong the limitations of this thesis. Without a doubt, though, implementation of a shipboard Grid OD program could not take place without a great deal of imaginative thinking as to how the many obstacles (some would regard these obstacles as ready excuses for not attempting such a program) can be effectively dealt with.

Officer training

Should the Navy one day move to adopt an organization development program such as Grid OD, it would seem logical

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[1] "The Military Leadership Grid."

that such training should be incorporated in officer training curriculums at the Naval Academy and Naval Officer Candidate School (OCS), and in the Naval Reserve Officers Training Corps (NROTC). Otherwise, the training programs may develop behavioral styles that are contrary to the organizational practices that the young officer will be introduced to after commissioning. On the other hand, if there is not commitment to Grid concepts from the top down and throughout the Naval Establishment, then to expose officer trainees to such concepts could have a disillusive effect once they are on the job.

Captain Moul, Commander of the Officer Candidate School at Newport, Rhode Island, was asked to comment on the applicability of using Grid training in the OCS curriculum. His response was as follows:

> I have thought about Grid application to OCS training but foresee some significant problems to overcome, not the least of which is finding time in a curriculum which is already saturated with professional subjects. Another consideration is the readiness of our students to participate in such a seminar. They are generally unfamiliar with the Navy's rather unique work environment and even more important, have yet to develop a significant managerial style. I feel that a certain amount of experience is essential to an effective learning experience. However, it may well be that the Grid concept could be adapted to a short presentation with the more limited objective of instructing the individual in the different managerial styles which he might encounter.[1]

No evaluation can be made of the validity of Captain Moul's statement, regarding the readiness of OCS students to

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[1]Letter from Captain Moul, March 4, 1970.

participate in Grid training. It may very well be that in a training experience such as the Grid Seminar experience is an important requisite. Nevertheless, it seems that graduating officers should have a knowledge of some of the types of values that are represented by the Grid, assuming that these same values are held and practiced by the men they will be working for after graduation. Based on the author's experience in attending Naval OCS, it is felt that Officer Candidates do not receive training that provides an opportunity for and knowledge of the importance of such values. In an article about Army OCS,[1] positive indication of this contention was found; however, the degree of similarity between the two curriculums is not known for certain. It is assumed that the two programs have much in common, particularly in regard to emphasis that is placed on developing task-oriented officers. The following passage from an article on Army OCS gives a strong indication that the behavioral style of the graduating officer may be inconsistent with the practices of the organization in which he may be working.

> The graduating student is action oriented with a greater concern for the mission than the welfare of his subordinates. . . . It is speculated that the behavioral style of the typical graduating student is best suited for leading a platoon in combat. This style is needed to manage violence and to make correct decisions quickly in time of crisis. Subsequent duties

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[1]Gordon L. Lippitt and Peter B. Petersen, "Development of a Behavioral Style in Leadership Training," Training and Development Journal, July, 1967, pp. 9-17.

> following about eight years of company grade assignments probably will require other behavioral styles. Prior to that time these men will hopefully receive additional training.[1]

Summary

Valuable organizational improvements are being realized at the Naval Electronics Laboratory Center at San Diego, California, through the use of Grid OD. This pilot program could provide the basis for further use of Grid OD in the United States Navy. Judging the applicability of Grid OD to ships and other combat units is highly speculative, because of the nature of the missions of these organizations and the complexities of their organizational environments. It is evident that significant potential exists for improvements in these less conventional organizations; however, it is difficult to access all of the problems that would have to be overcome in administering such a program. Should Grid OD be adopted for extensive use in the Navy, an important consideration would be its role in officer training. There is some support for the contention that Grid training could provide the newly commissioned officer with a needed knowledge of behavior in organizations, and a better balanced leadership style.

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[1] Ibid., p. 15.

CHAPTER VI

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Conclusions

Based on the research and analysis undertaken for this thesis, the author has drawn several conclusions. The following conclusions are categorized as they relate to the thesis chapters, and in general fall in chronological order with the material presented in the chapters.

Conclusions related to the leadership philosophy of the Managerial Grid

1. The Managerial Grid is patterned after the model developed in the Ohio State Leadership Studies. The two dimensions of the Ohio State Leadership Quadrants--"Relationships" and "Initiating Structure"--differ from those of the Managerial Grid--"Concern for People" and "Concern for Production"--only in terminology. The essence of Grid theory, i.e. 9,9 is best, is consistent with the findings of the Ohio State Leadership Studies.

2. There are many leadership theories that advocate various "situational" approaches to leadership theory. These theories range from approaches that would vary the leader's behavioral approach, depending on the environmental

circumstances, to changing the environment to fit the leader's basic style, to combinations of the two. Prime examples of these "situational" approach theories are: Tannenbaum and Schmidt's Continuum of Leadership, Reddin's 3-D Theory, Hersey and Blanchard's Life Cycle Theory, Graves' Levels of Human Behavior Theory, and Fiedler's Contingency Model of Leadership Effectiveness. Each of these theories offers strong arguments against those that represent a "best-style" approach toward leadership behavior, particularly the Managerial Grid. Blake and Mouton have not responded to these critics with equally convincing arguments.

3. The 9,9 approach of the Managerial Grid is essentially McGregor's Theory Y. Both approaches are based on a managerial philosophy that recognizes human needs, and the necessity to create conditions under which these needs can be satisfied consistent with the requirements of the organization.

4. The Managerial Grid provides a long-term philosophy for management. Although the descriptions on the Grid give some indication of the type of leadership behavior that could be expected under each Grid managerial orientation, the Managerial Grid does not provide a comprehensive model of the type of leadership behavior that should be used in a 9,9 managed organization. The Grid is subject to misinterpretation, and could prove a dilemma for some that

are trying to be 9,9 managers but feel that each decision, each action, must be guided by equal and absolute quantities of "Concern for People" and "Concern for Production." They might not recognize, for example, that displaying a high degree of kindness under certain circumstances is actually 9,9, but instead might feel that such behavior is 1,9, which Grid theory precludes.

5. The central importance which Grid theory places on teamwork and team development offers a sound basis for a management philosophy.

Conclusions related to Grid OD Phases I and II

1. Based on reports from companies, the Grid Seminar is more suited to an OD program than is the classic sensitivity training laboratory. However, should an organization modify its sensitivity training to include job-oriented exercises, then such an approach may be just as well suited for OD as is the Grid Seminar.

2. Phase I: The Grid Seminar is not designed to result in immediate changes in behavior. Though some organizations report immediate positive results from the Grid Seminar, these findings are considered either an exception or somewhat less than the ultimate results expected to be derived in later OD stages. The Grid Seminar is meant to be a learning experience that prepares individuals for participating successfully in subsequent OD activities that will result in change.

3. Phase II team-building sessions are an important sequel to the Phase I Grid Seminars. A quick follow-up with Phase II training is the best approach to ensure maximum retainment and application of what was learned in Phase I. With Phase II an organization can expect to derive significant results in terms of better teamwork and managers whose behavior is more consistent with 9,9 concepts. The organization is also strengthened because of multiple participation in team-building sessions by men who are members of two or more different teams.

4. Critical to a successful Phase II and subsequent Grid OD phases is the possession by groups of the norms that are supportive of Grid concepts. If restrictive norms exist, they are probably symptomatic of problems that exist in the conduct of the Grid OD program.

5. If a company is to commit itself to Grid training beyond initial trial participation, it should not consider Phase I unless it is prepared to continue on into Phase II. Otherwise, it does not appear that there would be nearly enough pay-back from Phase I alone to justify the expense of the training. Not only is Phase II required to reinforce Phase I learning and to act as a catalyst to bring about worthwhile changes, but also some Phase I participants may become disillusioned with the organization for not continuing to try to change a culture that is contrary to that experienced during the Phase I laboratory training. Some Phase I

participants may become just 9,9,1, and their inconsistent behavior could cause morale problems among their subordinates. Phase II is required to move the 9,9,1's in the direction of 9,9,9, and to indoctrinate members of natural work groups so they can appreciate what their leaders are trying to achieve.

Conclusions related to Grid OD Phases III through VI and the total Grid OD program

1. In organizations in which a high degree of competition exists among managers, and in which work teams are highly cohesive and task-oriented, difficulties could develop in achieving Phase III objectives. Though Phase III methods are sound, they may be ineffective in these organizations because of the unwillingness of individuals and groups to give up what they perceive to be their identity and integrity. Such an impasse could occur even among groups that mutually recognize the overall benefits that would accrue to the organization through their cooperation.

2. Prior to committing itself to a Grid OD program, it would be advisable for an organization to conduct Phase IV activities, at least on a modified basis, to determine the current strategic considerations for the organization. Such an assessment could lead to better decisions on the degree of need for a Grid OD program, and any modifications to the program that would be beneficial.

3. It is likely that Phase IV results would be strengthened by allowing greater participation in the

design of the ideal strategic model. Although such a function is definitely one of great concern to top management, commitment to the strategic model could be better assured by decentralizing the initial development of the model to the functional organizational areas. There is no reason to believe that the model would be any less valuable by using such an approach, and it seems logical that it might be even more valuable because of the utilization of a broader creative base. By decentralizing the responsibility for the formulation of initial inputs into the development of the model, the responses should be much better than would be obtained through the approach of asking lower level personnel to review what someone else had developed. The latter approach could appear as a facade for gaining commitment.

4. Based on the findings of Rand Corporation in their use of the Delphi Technique to improve value judgments, the technique could prove to be a valuable asset to Phase IV.

5. Grid OD Phases IV, V, and VI appear well-designed to guide organizations in strategic and tactical planning, problem-solving through use of modern management science methods, and the systematic analysis and critique of the progress of the organization. Management literature is filled with excellent discussions of all of these facets of modern organizational management. Certainly it should not take Grid OD to introduce such practices to today's

organizations. Probably most organizations participating in Grid OD programs are already employing most of these practices. The value of Grid OD, however, is that it provides for the application of traditional and modern practices within the framework of a culture based on the behavioral sciences. It is to the credit of Blake and Mouton that they have developed a systematic interface between two often opposing schools of management thought, management science and behavioral science.

6. Based on results up to the present time, it is felt that Grid OD is capable of achieving its objectives and in promoting valuable improvements in organizations. The total Grid OD program is not, however, considered to be a panacea for all organizational problems; nor should it be considered a static program. The developers of Grid OD have provided a valuable guide for achieving lasting organizational change, but the program should be regarded as only a guide that is subject to change based on the individual needs of the organization.

7. Grid OD has application not only in bringing about changes in the organization's management and in improving planning, but in the possibility of including organizational wage-level personnel in the development program. Interim results indicate that beneficial changes can occur within these lower organizational levels if adaptations of Phase I and Phase II training are extended to personnel and work groups at these levels.

8. Grid OD has not received critical evaluative studies commensurate with the amount of resources that organizations are presently committing to the program. Current studies rely primarily on a measurement of immediate results and perceived attitude changes resulting from Grid OD. Such results can only be regarded as interim indications of the success of the program, a principal difficulty being that distortions in the data could occur due to the Hawthorne Effect.[1] Studies would be more meaningful if they also evaluated some of the basic methods and concepts of Grid OD, as the author has attempted to do in this thesis.

Conclusions related to the use of Grid OD in the United States Navy

1. Interim indications are that Grid OD can achieve valuable results in noncombat Naval shore installations.

2. Grid concepts are not inconsistent with the organizational requirements of combat oriented units. Application of Grid OD to the shipboard organization would be a highly complex task, but one in which the potential rewards are significant. A pilot Grid OD program aboard ship to test the feasibility and the potential benefits appears warranted.

3. The introduction of some form of Grid training into the curriculum of officer training commands, such as OCS,

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[1]H. Stephenson, "Evaluating Human Relations Training," Personnel Administration, July-August, 1966, p. 37.

would provide the newly commissioned officer with a better perspective of organizational behavioral patterns and would better prepare him to establish effective job-oriented interpersonal relationships in his new assignment.

Recommendations

The author feels that the following recommendations would improve Grid OD:

1. The Managerial Grid should be clarified in terms of its application as a long-range management philosophy vis-à-vis serving as a management orientation for dealing with different leadership situations. The author has concluded that the Grid in its present form cannot serve both purposes. It is suspected that this confusing factor causes many Grid training participants to reject the Grid as a useful orientation.

2. Organizations should normally not participate in Phase I training without making a commitment for Phase II training as well. Pay-back from participation in Phase I only would in all probability not be sufficient to justify the expense.

3. Prior to making a decision to undertake a Grid OD program, an organization should conduct Phase IV activities, at least on a modified basis. This would provide the organization with an assessment of its strategic position and the attendant need for an OD program. It is recognized that the strategic model that would be developed would

probably be of poor quality compared to the model developed in normal Phase IV activities; however, the model would provide the organization with a rational basis for planning its OD needs.

4. Phase IV should begin by decentralizing the task of developing the ideal strategic model. Top management could still carry out Phase IV in the normal manner, except that it would now be receiving recommendations for the model instead of "starting from scratch." It is felt that more creative suggestions would be made using this approach, and greater commitment to the ideal strategic model would result.

5. Further research on the results of Grid OD should be conducted both on the part of organizations participating in Grid programs and by professional researchers.

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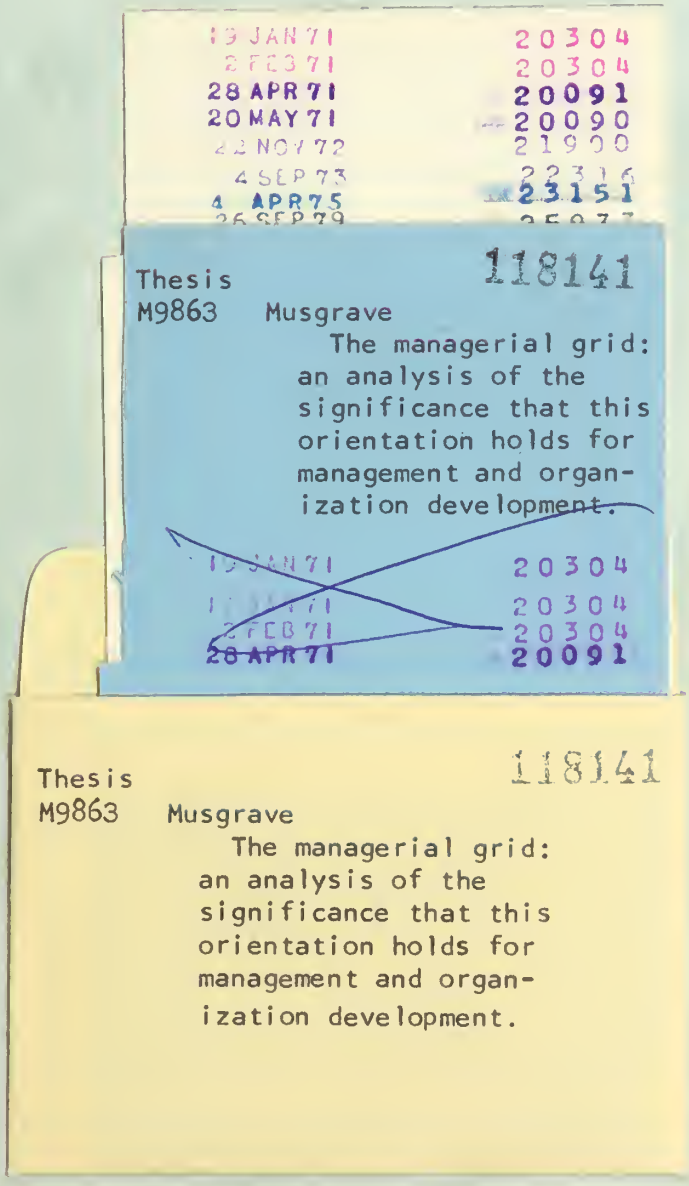
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